

LEISURE-TRAVEL BEHAVIORS OF COLLEGE-EDUCATED AFRICAN
AMERICANS AND PERCEIVED RACIAL DISCRIMINATION

By

CYNTHIA L. WILLMING

A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLOIRDA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

2001

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to extend my sincerest thanks to my dissertation committee members: Stephen Anderson for accepting to be my chair and for his thorough editorial assistance; Lori Pennington-Gray for keeping me on track with her tough questions regarding my methods and for her countless talks with me about statistics; Heather Gibson, who answered my frequent questions about the application of theory to my research; Stephen Holland for looking out for my best interests and for his kind words of encouragement; and Leonard Beeghley, who encouraged me to follow my heart regarding my research interests.

In addition, I would like to thank specific individuals that supported me through this process: Larry Burke, who gave me access to the sampling frame for the study; Edwin Gomez, who answered my constant emails regarding race and ethnicity; Myron Floyd, who selflessly reviewed my questionnaire during his interview at the University of Florida; and Wayne Losano, who challenged my writing skills through his editing.

I would also like to thank the many friends I have made at the Department of Recreation, Parks and Tourism for their constant support and encouragement. To my family and dearest friends, I extend my deepest gratitude for your patience, love, and encouragement. Finally, I would like to thank the respondents who took the time to participate in my study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>page</u>
ACKNOWLEDEMENTS.....	ii
ABSTRACT.....	v
CHAPTERS	
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	2
Theoretical Framework.....	5
Purpose of the Study.....	7
Research Questions.....	8
Delimitations.....	10
Limitations.....	10
2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	11
Tourism as a Form of Leisure Behavior.....	12
Leisure Behavior and Race.....	14
Travel Behavior and Race.....	26
Travel Behavior and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage.....	30
Chapter Summary.....	44
3 METHODS.....	46
Questionnaire Design.....	46
Sample.....	49
Pre-testing the Questionnaire.....	53
Data Collection.....	53
Recoding of the Data and Data Analysis.....	55
4 RESULTS.....	59
Descriptive Statistics.....	59
Leisure-Travel Behaviors.....	61
Perceived Racial Discrimination During Leisure Travel.....	67
Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination During Leisure Travel.....	69

Relationships Between Leisure-Travel Behaviors and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage.....	73
Relationships Between Perceived Racial Discrimination During Leisure Travel and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage.....	88
Relationships Between the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination During Leisure Travel and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage.....	101
Relationships Between Social Class, Gender, Life Stage, and Perceived Racial Discrimination on the Leisure-Travel Behaviors.....	111
5 DISSCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	126
Summary of Procedures and Treatment of the Data.....	126
Summary of Findings.....	127
Conclusions.....	145
Discussion and Implications.....	146
Recommendations for Future Research.....	148
APPENDIX THE LEISURE TRAVEL PATTERNS OF AFRICAN AMERICANS AND PERCEIVED RACIAL DISCRIMINATION SURVEY.....	151
REFERENCES.....	158
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.....	167

Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
of the University of Florida in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

LEISURE-TRAVEL BEHAVIOR OF COLLEGE-EDUCATED AFRICAN
AMERICANS AND PERCEIVED RACIAL DISCRIMINATION

By

Cynthia Lorraine Willming

August 2001

Chair: Stephen Anderson

Major Department: Recreation, Parks and Tourism

This study examines the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, perceptions of racial discrimination, and the influence of social class, gender, and life stage on leisure-travel behaviors. A questionnaire was developed and mailed to 800 African Americans who had attended the University of Florida. Of the 800, 131 African Americans were included in the study; 43.5 percent were male and 56.5 percent were female; 47 percent were aged between 17 – 45 years (Early Adulthood) and 47 percent were aged between 46 – 65 years (Middle Adulthood); 44 percent had completed a master's degree or had some work on an Ed.D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D., 29 percent had a bachelor's degree or some graduate work, and 25 percent had an Ed. D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D; 47 percent had a family income above \$85,000, 33 percent had a family income between \$55,000 to \$84,999, and 16 percent had a family income below \$54,999. The

data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, t-tests, one-way ANOVAs, and multiple regression.

The findings of this study indicate that college-educated African Americans are active participants in the travel and tourism industry. Unfortunately, some African Americans perceive racial discrimination in the travel services and activities that they use or participate in the most during their leisure travel. Even though some African Americans perceived racial discrimination in certain travel services and activities, they rarely changed their leisure-travel behaviors. Gender was somewhat useful to understand the relationships between perceived racial discrimination and activities and income was the strongest indication of the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans. The collective influence of education, income, gender, life stage, and perceived racial discrimination accounted for some of the differences among the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans.

To disregard the reality of perceived racial discrimination in the leisure-travel experiences of African Americans is to exclude African Americans from the same rights and privileges that are available to whites during their leisure travel. While perceived racial discrimination is a sensitive and challenging issue, further research is needed to understand this phenomenon and preventative measures are needed to eradicate this serious quality of life issue.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the world (World Tourism Organization (WTO), 1997; Goeldner, Ritchie, & McIntosh, 2000). In the United States, tourism is the third largest industry generating an annual \$559.9 billion in expenditures from domestic and international travelers (Travel Industry Association of America (TIA), 2001). According to TIA, over one billion domestic-person trips of 50 miles or more that are one way and are at least one night away from home will be taken in 2001. This large volume of travel activity exemplifies the economic and social impacts of the tourism industry and as a result has influenced more facets of society than any other modern industry (Apostolopoulos, 1996).

The pervasiveness of tourism over the last 40 years has prompted scholars to initially examine tourism as a sociological phenomenon. Much of this work can be classified into four areas of research: the tourist, host community and tourist interactions, the structure of the tourism system, and the effects of tourism (Cohen, 1984). Within these areas of research no single conceptualization of the term *tourism* has been agreed upon (Dann & Cohen, 1991; Cohen, 1984). However, many social scientists have conceptualized tourism as a modern-day leisure activity or specialized form of leisure behavior (Cohen, 1974; Smith, 1989; Yiannakis & Gibson; 1992). In this view, tourism is placed within a work and leisure context whereby tourism consists of working hosts and leisured travelers. Hence, the tourist is viewed as a leisure traveler who seeks non-

instrumental pleasure-related activities, unlike the business traveler. Tourism conceptualized as a modern-day leisure activity or specialized form of leisure behavior is one approach that might lend considerable understanding to the behaviors exhibited by the tourist during his/her leisure travel.

Statement of the Problem

With the rise of mass tourism since WWII, leisure travel has been a commonly shared experience for much of the U.S. population (Kelly & Godbey, 1992). In fact, an estimated 66 percent of the U.S. population reported taking leisure-related trips in 1999 (TIA, 2001). While these leisure travelers are similar in many ways, socio-structural factors such as social class, gender, and life stage have been found to influence leisure-travel behaviors (Frew & Shaw, 1999; Gottlieb, 1982; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992, Gibson & Yiannakis, in press). Yet, few researchers have examined the influence of race on leisure-travel behaviors (Goodrich, 1985; Philipp, 1993, 1994; TIA, 1996).

Given this lack of research on race and leisure travel, no definitive explanation of the factors that influence the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans is available. This absence of research is of concern because racial and ethnic populations in the U.S. are increasingly diversifying and at present our understanding of their travel-related experiences is minimal. Currently, racial and ethnic groups represent 26 percent of the U.S. population; however, by 2050 racial and ethnic populations are predicted to increase to 47 percent whereas the European American population will decrease to 53 percent (United States Bureau of the Census, 1999). The African American population is expected to increase from 13 percent to 20 percent in the next 10 years (U.S.B.C., 1999). Because of this population trend, investigating the factors that influence the leisure-travel

behaviors of African Americans will become progressively more significant and justifies scholarly attention.

In the area of leisure studies, many researchers have examined the relationship between race and leisure behavior, using the marginality-ethnicity perspective (Klobus-Edwards, 1981; Stamps & Stamps, 1985; Hutchison, 1987; Washburne, 1978; West, 1989; Woodard, 1988). Washburne (1978) developed the marginality-ethnicity perspective to explain the differences between the participation rates of African Americans and whites in wildland activities. The marginality perspective suggests that the “under participation” of African Americans in wildland activities is linked to the unequal allocation of resources such as lack of income, segregated housing, lack of transportation, and lack of information about recreation facilities or activities. However, when no significant differences emerge between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites using the marginality perspective then the ethnicity perspective is considered. According to the ethnicity perspective, the “under participation” of African Americans in wildland activities compared to whites is attributed to variations between each racial group’s subcultural characteristics (i.e., culture) such as values, traditions, norms, and social organizations of groups.

Researchers using the marginality-ethnicity perspective have found support for this approach, although results have been mixed. For example, Hutchison (1987) and West (1989) found support for the marginality perspective while Klobus-Edwards (1981), Stamps and Stamps (1985), and Washburne (1978) found support for the ethnicity perspective. Because inconsistent findings surround this perspective, some researchers suggest that the marginality-ethnicity approach provides insufficient explanation of the

factors that account for the variations between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites (Floyd & Gramann, 1993; Hutchison, 1988; Johnson, Bowker, English, & Worthen, 1997).

Given the inconclusive nature of this perspective, Phillip (1999) and West (1989) suggest that theories based on the concepts of prejudice and discrimination might help to increase our understanding of the leisure behaviors of African Americans and other minority groups. Subsequently, researchers using this approach have found that racial and ethnic groups tend to avoid leisure settings where prejudice and racial discrimination is perceived (Blahna & Black, 1993; Gobster & Delgado, 1992; Philipp, 1999; West, 1989), and as such this seems to better explain the lower participation rates of African Americans in some recreational settings or activities.

In the area of tourism research, no previous work has examined the influence of racial discrimination on the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. In fact, only a small number of studies have identified the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans (Goodrich, 1985; Philipp, 1993, 1994; TIA, 1996). Perhaps researchers have overlooked the African American population because of its smaller numbers compared to European Americans, or because researchers have failed to consider African Americans' travel-spending power, or have assumed that African Americans share similar values, attitudes, and preferences with European Americans. Consequently, homogenizing the values, attitudes, and preferences of racial and ethnic groups tends to ignore the heterogeneity or differences within these groups (Floyd, 1998; Hutchinson, 1988). Because tourism functions within a broader social-structural system, using the concepts of prejudice and discrimination might help to increase the understanding of the factors that account for the

variations in the leisure travel behaviors of African Americans and might further increase our understanding of these tourists within a sociological context.

Since no previous work in the tourism literature has empirically examined the influence of perceived racial discrimination on the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and because few tourism studies have examined the leisure-behaviors of African Americans many questions remain unanswered. What will an increasing African American population mean for the tourism industry? What are the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans? What factors influence their leisure-travel behaviors? Because leisure studies have found that racial and ethnic groups tend to avoid leisure settings where racial discrimination is perceived (Blahna & Black, 1993; Gobster & Delgado, 1992; Philipp, 1999; West, 1989), this study builds on these findings.

Theoretical Framework

This study adopts a micro-level perspective of racial discrimination to explain the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. *Micro-discrimination* refers to discriminatory acts that occur between individual interactions (Feagin & Sikes, 1994). Allport (1958) suggests that face-to-face discriminatory acts tend to deny other individuals or groups equal treatment. Feagin and Eckberg (1980) describe micro-discrimination as “actions or practices [that are] carried out by members of dominant racial or ethnic groups that have a differential and negative impact on members of subordinate racial and ethnic groups” (p. 1-2). The manifestation of racial discrimination is reflected in the following statement by Essed (1991):

Racial discrimination is...routinely created and reinforced through everyday practices...and connect structural forces of racism with routine situations in everyday life. Racism...links ideological dimensions of racism with daily

attitudes and interprets the reproduction of racism in terms of the experience of it in everyday life. (p.2)

Finally, Landrine and Klonoff (1996) suggest that the effects of racial discrimination on African Americans are “inherently demeaning, degrading, and highly personal” (p. 147).

Many researchers have investigated the existence of racial discrimination in contemporary American society (Feagin, 1991; Jaynes & Williams, 1989; Krieger, 1990; Landrine & Klonoff, 1996; Sigelman & Welch, 1991). These studies have confirmed that the racial attitudes of whites do not fully support equality for blacks; however, whites have more positive attitudes today than in the past (Jaynes & Williams, 1989; Schuman, Steeh, & Bobo, 1985). Because whites are usually not subjected to racial discrimination, they are less likely to perceive the existence of racial discrimination in the lives of minority groups (Kluegel & Bobo, 1993; Sigelman & Welch, 1991). Moreover, whites are more likely to oppose measures such as busing children to eliminate school segregation and affirmative action (Pettigrew, 1985) and oppose participation in school settings or neighborhoods where blacks are present (Jaynes & Williams, 1989).

According to Feagin (1991) and Feagin and Sikes (1994) equal enjoyment of public amenities for African Americans is not always a reality. Feagin (1991) found African Americans encounter discriminatory acts in public places and accommodations. He found evidence of minor and major acts of racial discrimination and categorized these discriminatory acts into five progressive stages:

- 1) avoidance actions, such as a white couple crossing the street when a black male approaches;
- 2) rejection actions, such as poor service in public accommodations;
- 3) verbal attacks, such as shouting racial remarks in the streets;

- 4) physical threats and harassment by white police officers; and
- 5) physical threats and attacks from other whites, such as attacks by white supremacists in the street (Feagin, 1991).

Broman, Mavaddat, and Hsu (2000) found that blacks felt that they had most commonly experienced some form of discrimination while shopping. Likewise, Landrine and Klonoff (1996) found that 98 percent of blacks had experienced some form of discrimination in the past year and all of these same blacks reported encountering some form of racial discrimination during their lifetime. Specific to the medical profession, Krieger (1990) found that 66 percent of blacks had experienced some form of racial discrimination or biased treatment when seeking treatment for high blood pressure. Finally, Sigelman and Welch (1991) found that blacks felt they had experienced negative consequences because of their encounters with racial discrimination.

Certainly, the literature suggests that racial discrimination is a pervasive facet in the lives of African Americans. Regardless of social status, blacks are equally likely to perceive race as a significant factor in their lives (Broman, Mavaddat, & Hsu, 2000; Feagin & Sikes, 1994; Lee, 2000). Hence, because racial discrimination is a prevalent issue in contemporary society, it seems plausible that African Americans might encounter some form of racial discrimination during their leisure travel. Accordingly, this study used a micro-level perspective of racial discrimination to evaluate the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was (1) to identify the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, (2) examine the extent to which perceived racial discrimination

influences the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, which in turn might broaden the understanding of the racial climate in the U.S. tourism industry, and (3) investigate the effects of social class, gender, and life stage on leisure-travel behaviors. There is a need for this study because it (1) examines a population group that has received little attention in the tourism literature, (2) contributes to the body of knowledge on travel behavior and race, (3) provides implications for practice, and (4) addresses quality of life issues for the African American population.

Research Questions

The following questions form the basis for the research described in this study:

1. What are the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, types of accommodations, types of food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?
2. What are African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination in their use of types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities during their leisure travel?
3. Do perceptions of racial discrimination influence the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?
4. What is the relationship between social class (i.e., education and income), gender, life stage, and the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?
5. What is the relationship between social class (i.e., education and income), gender, life stage, and African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination in their use of types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities during their leisure travel?
6. What is the relationship between social class (i.e., education and income), gender, life stage, and the influence of racial discrimination on the leisure travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

7. Are education, income, gender, and life stage more strongly related to the leisure travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans than perceived racial discrimination? Refer to figure 1 – 1.

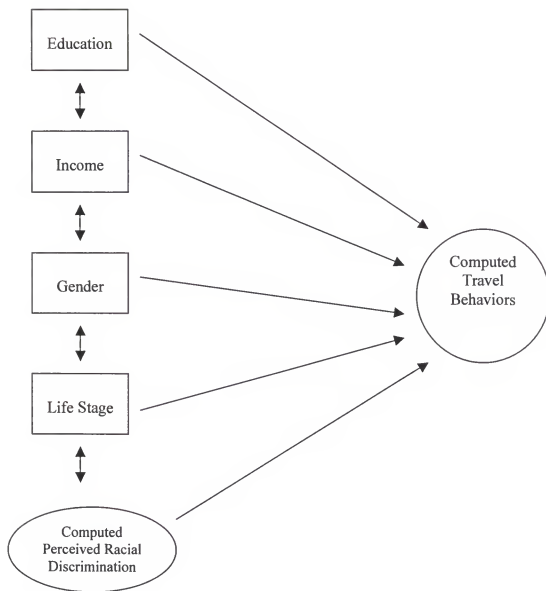


Figure 1 – 1. Relationships Among Education, Income, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination During Leisure Travel, and Computed Leisure-Travel Behaviors.

Delimitations

The study was delimited to African American men and women whose names and current addresses appeared on the University of Florida's Alumni list. It was further delimited to African Americans who had traveled for leisure within the past two years at least 100 miles one way, and had stayed at least 24 hours overnight.

Limitations

The respondents in this study cannot be considered representative of the African American population. However, the results of this study can be generalized to African Americans who possess similar educational and income levels to illustrate the similarities and differences between African American groups. The study was also limited to a narrowed representation of the life span model developed by Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978) because the researcher neglected to include the respondent's marital status, number of children, and ages of children on the survey. In addition, the question on the survey that reads, "Have your experiences of perceived racial discrimination influenced your use or non-use of types of transportation, accommodations, and food-service facilities?" might have caused considerable confusion to the respondents, although the researcher recoded the responses to control for this limitation. Finally, the researcher was unable to determine the non-response bias of the sample because the University of Florida Alumni Association prohibited the researcher from contacting the respondents.

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study is to identify the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, to determine the extent to which racial discrimination influences their leisure travel, and to investigate the effects of social class (i.e., education and income), gender, and life stage or life span on leisure-travel behaviors. This chapter will define terminology as well as review the literature about the theories that address the leisure and travel behaviors of African Americans. The literature review covers four areas: (1) Tourism as a Form of Leisure Behavior, (2) Leisure Behavior and Race, (3) Travel Behavior and Race, and (4) Travel Behavior and Social Class, Gender, and Life stage or Stage in the Life Cycle.

The section titled Tourism as a Form of Leisure Behavior addresses the phenomenon of tourism as a specialized form of leisure behavior. The section Leisure Behavior and Race first discusses the literature that has used the marginality-ethnicity perspective to explain the differences between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites and then addresses racial discrimination as an alternative explanation to the marginality-ethnicity perspective. The section Travel Behavior and Race examines the small number of studies that have documented the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. Finally, Travel Behavior and Social Class, Gender, and Life stage or Life Span briefly discuss the influences of these variables on leisure and travel behaviors. In the sections to follow, many studies have used the terms *African*

American and *black* interchangeably. Hence, the discussion follows the terminology used in each study.

Tourism as a Form of Leisure Behavior

The term *tourism* has received considerable attention from researchers over the years (Cohen, 1984; Graburn, 1983; MacCannell, 1976; Pearce, 1987). In the broadest sense, Pearce (1987) describes tourism as a phenomenon that is essentially about people and the places people visit and pass through while encountering people along the way. Other researchers describe tourism as a modern-day pilgrimage or sacred journey (Graburn, 1983; MacCannell, 1976) where “tourism involves for the participants a separation from normal ‘instrumental’ life and the business of making a living, and offers entry into another kind of moral state in which mental, expressive, and cultural needs come to the fore” (Graburn, 1983, p. 11). Hence, people depart from their home-based ordinary lives to seek non-alienating environments in their travels (MacCannell, 1976). Another viewpoint conceptualizes tourism as a specialized form of leisure behavior or modern-day leisure activity (Cohen, 1974; Pearce, 1982; Smith, 1989; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992). Hence, this line of thinking views the tourist as a leisure traveler.

The term *leisure behavior* has been defined as discretionary time (Brightbill, 1960), activity (Dumazedier, 1967), experience (Neulinger, 1974), or leisure as action or an integrated domain of life (Kelly & Freysinger, 2000). Conceptualizing leisure as action takes place in time, but is not bound by time has an identifiable form whether it is concrete or abstract, and includes the element of experience (Kelly, 1996; Kelly & Freysinger, 2000). Freedom as the underlying condition of this definition suggests that the participant takes action to negotiate internal and external constraints to achieve “the

freedom to do and to become” (Kelly, 1996, p. 23). That is, leisure as action is a self-constructed space whereby the person has the power to negotiate and resist perceived constraints. Accordingly, leisure as action is more than time, activity, or experience. It is a combination of these elements that induces the quality of action that is pervasive in the activity. Therefore, defining leisure as action occurs in all dimensions of life (e.g. school, work, family, home, community, travel, etc.).

Following the conceptualization of travel as a specialized form of leisure behavior, Cohen (1974) characterizes the tourist as a “voluntary, temporary traveller, travelling in the expectation of pleasure from novelty and change experienced on a relatively long and non-recurrent round-trip” (p. 533). Likewise, Smith (1989) describes the tourist as a leisured person who “voluntarily visits a place away from home for the purpose of experiencing a change” (p. 1). However, this is not to suggest that the business traveler never takes on the characteristics of the leisure traveler but that for the business traveler, pleasure-related behaviors are secondary.

Another definition of the tourist reads, “temporary visitors staying at least twenty four hours in the country visited and the purpose whose journey can be classified under one of the following headings: (i) Leisure (recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, and sport); (ii) Business, family, mission, meeting” (International Union of Official Travel Organization (IUOTO), 1963). Unlike the other definitions of the tourist, the IUOTO’s definition makes no clear distinction between the behaviors of the tourist as a leisure traveler or a business traveler and as a result is too broad for leisure studies (Cohen, 1984; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992).

The preceding discussion describes the conceptual link between leisure and travel behavior. Tourism is characterized as a specialized form of leisure behavior and as such the tourist is defined as a leisure traveler. Because the purpose of this study was to identify the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, this line of thinking was used in the conceptualization and operationalization of this study. Since tourism has been characterized as a specialized form of leisure behavior and because few tourism studies have examined the relationship between travel behavior and race, the next section reviews the literature from the wider field of leisure behavior and race.

Leisure Behavior and Race

Since the 1970s, researchers have examined the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites in various recreational settings (Cheek, Field, & Burdge, 1976; Hutchison, 1987; Klobus-Edwards, 1981; Lee, 1972; Stamps & Stamps 1985; Washburne, 1978; Washburne & Wall, 1980; West 1989; Woodard, 1988). These studies have found that whites are more likely to participate in wildland activities (i.e., visits to regional parks, camping, walking, hiking) than are African Americans. Most of these studies have used the marginality-ethnicity framework (Washburne, 1978) to explain the differences between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites, but the findings have been inconsistent. Subsequently, no single view of the marginality-ethnicity perspective has dominated the work on leisure behavior and race. Other researchers suggest that the concepts of prejudice and racial discrimination might help to increase the understanding of the differences that exist between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites (Blahna & Black, 1993; Gobster & Delgado, 1992; Lee, 1972; Philipp, 1999; West, 1989, 1993).

The remaining sections (1) define the terms *marginality* and *ethnicity*, (2) provide empirical support for each perspective, (3) summarize the challenges of the marginality-ethnicity perspective, and (4) discuss the concept of racial discrimination as an alternative viewpoint to the marginality-ethnicity perspective to further explain the differences between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites.

Definition of the Marginality Perspective

The term *marginality* refers to the unequal allocation of resources based on poverty and the consequences of socio-economic discrimination (Washburne, 1978). The unequal allocation of resources includes factors such as lack of income, segregated housing, lack of transportation, and lack of information about available recreation facilities or activities (Hutchison, 1987; Washburne, 1978). The marginality perspective hypothesizes that the unequal allocation of resources affects the leisure behaviors of marginalized groups in some way and as a result their leisure behaviors are likely to differ from those of the dominant groups in society. The marginality perspective suggests that the under-participation of African Americans in wildland activities is linked to the unequal distribution of resources that originate from poverty and socio-economic discrimination (Hutchison, 1987; West, 1989; Woodard, 1988). However, when no empirical support for the marginality perspective is found, the ethnicity perspective is adopted to explain the differences between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites.

Definition of the Ethnicity Perspective

The term *ethnicity* refers to subcultural characteristics (i.e., culture) such as values, traditions, norms, and social organizations of groups. This perspective suggests

that the under-participation of African Americans in wildland activities is attributed to their unique set of values, traditions, norms, and/or organization as a group (Washburne, 1978), which in turn differs from whites. While researchers have found support for the ethnicity perspective, the term *race* has sometimes been misused to denote ethnicity (West, 1989). The term *race* is defined as the social construction of identity based on physical traits (Beeghley, 2000), which in no way represents a measure of ethnicity. Hence, inconsistent conceptualizations of the term *ethnicity* have often characterized the literature on leisure behavior and race.

Empirical Support for the Marginality Perspective

The Outdoor Recreation Resource Review Commission (ORRRC) (1962) was one of the earliest studies to examine the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites in outdoor-recreation settings. Since the marginality-ethnicity perspective was not developed until 1978, the ORRRC report examined the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites using demographic characteristics (i.e., race). The findings show whites had higher participation rates in outdoor-recreation activities than did blacks. While no statistical analysis was conducted, this study is important to the literature on leisure behavior and race because it marks one of the first attempts to understand the differences between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites.

In a later study, although again before the development of the marginality-ethnicity perspective, Cheek, Field, and Burdge (1976) investigated the recreation behaviors of inner-city blacks and whites based on similar socio-demographic characteristics to determine the influence of race on their recreation behaviors. The authors found one significant difference among the number of sports played between the

two groups in which blacks had higher participation rates in sport activities. Because only one significant difference emerged between these racial groups, the findings suggested that social class was a stronger predictor of recreation behaviors than race.

Using the marginality-ethnicity perspective, Hutchison (1987) examined the leisure behaviors of blacks, whites, and Hispanics in various public parks to determine whether ethnic or racial factors influenced their leisure behaviors. Ethnicity was measured using the social organization (i.e., age, sex, race, and number of participants) of each racial and ethnic group. The findings show that black groups resembled white groups in their types of activities, group size, and sex composition. In contrast to these findings, the leisure behaviors of Hispanic groups neither resembled blacks nor whites. As a result, the findings suggest that the marginality perspective (i.e., social class) accounted for the similarities between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites whereas the ethnicity perspective (i.e., social organization of the group) explained the variations in the leisure behaviors of Hispanics. According to Hutchison, "we will find little support in the race and ethnicity literature to support the contention that black-white differences are due to ethnic or cultural differences" (p. 220).

West (1989) examined the participation rates of blacks and whites in city and regional parks, using the marginality, sub-cultural (ethnicity), and inter-racial relations perspectives. He measured inter-racial relations by blacks' perceptions of the degree of feeling uneasy or unwelcome during encounters with whites. West found blacks had higher participation rates in city parks and lower participation rates in regional parks than did whites. According to West, the lower participation rates of blacks in regional parks was linked to their restricted access to automobile transportation and because car

ownership is linked to higher SES, the marginality perspective accounts for the differences between the participation rates of blacks and whites in regional parks. Furthermore, he found blacks were more likely than whites to feel uneasy or unwelcome when visiting regional parks, which provides some support for the inter-racial relations perspective, although the findings were not statistically significant. Unlike previous researchers, West attempted to move beyond the marginality-ethnicity framework by using the concept of racial discrimination to further understand the leisure behaviors of blacks.

While the above researchers examined the differences between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites, Woodard (1988) sought to identify the differences among the leisure behaviors of middle-class black Americans living in a Southwest Chicago community. He used occupation and level of education to measure social class (i.e., marginality) using Hollingshead's Two Factor Index of Social Position and regionality was measured by the respondents' place of residence during their first 16 years of life. The results indicate that both social class and regionality were useful variables to predict the leisure behaviors of middle-class Black Americans. We should note that this study is one of the few studies that examined heterogeneity within the leisure behaviors of the black population rather than comparing their leisure behaviors to whites.

Empirical Support for the Ethnicity Perspective

Because previous researchers had found variations between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites, Washburne (1978) developed the marginality-ethnicity perspective to further examine these differences. Washburne (1978) investigated the leisure participation patterns of blacks and whites, using secondary data and matched sampling

procedures based on region and socioeconomic variables. Because data were not available to measure ethnicity, he did not examine this perspective. Controlling for residence and socioeconomic variables, he found one significant difference between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites in the area of wildland activities where blacks had lower participation rates than did whites. Because few differences existed between these groups, Washburne denoted the declining utility of the marginality perspective to explain the differences between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites. While he did not empirically test for the influence of ethnicity on leisure behavior, he suggested, "an analysis of value systems in minority cultures might provide insights into how they serve as predictors of leisure behavior" (p. 186). Hence, the ethnicity perspective might be an alternative explanation to understand the differences between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites. It should be noted that since Washburne's study, some researchers have misused the marginality-ethnicity perspective and have used the term *race* to denote ethnicity, which misrepresents both the conceptualization and operationalization of this perspective.

In a later study, Washburne and Wall (1980) examined the outdoor recreation patterns of blacks and whites with similar socio-demographic backgrounds. Similar to Washburne's (1978) previous findings, the only significant difference between the recreation behaviors of blacks and whites in this study was the lower participation rates of blacks in wildland activities (camping, primitive camping, boating, and sightseeing). According to Washburne and Wall, the marginality perspective provided minimal explanation of the differences between the recreation behaviors of blacks and whites and suggested the ethnicity perspective might account for the lower participation rates of

blacks in wildland activities, although the term *ethnicity* was not measured in the study. Subsequently, without empirical support of the ethnicity perspective, the differences between the recreation behaviors of blacks and whites are left unexplained.

Building on the above studies, Klobus-Edwards (1981) examined the recreation behaviors and preferences of blacks and whites to determine whether leisure style was associated with either the marginality or ethnicity perspective. Controlling for socio-demographic variables, blacks were more likely to participate in outdoor-recreation activities than were whites. Blacks living in diverse communities had significantly higher wildland-recreation-preference scores compared to blacks living in predominately black communities. According to Klobus-Edwards, the differences between the recreation behaviors and preferences of blacks and whites were linked to ethnic differences rather than marginality factors. She suggests the ethnicity perspective was empirically supported through her findings of "subcultural variations in leisure priorities" of blacks and whites, where whites favored skill classes and organized outdoor activities and blacks preferred physical conditioning and dance instruction (p. 107). While the findings seem to support the ethnicity perspective, it is questionable whether the variations of leisure priorities are accurate measures of ethnicity.

Avoiding the misuse of the term *ethnicity*, Stamps and Stamps (1985) hypothesized that social class (marginality) rather than race was a stronger predictor of leisure behavior. The authors used Hollingshead's Two Factor Index of Social Position to measure social class. Stamps and Stamps found correlations between the leisure behaviors of (a) middle class blacks and whites was $r = .55$, (b) middle and lower class blacks was $r = .89$, and (c) middle and lower class whites was $r = .89$. Using chi-squared

analysis to assess the participation differences between blacks and whites by class, Stamps and Stamps found that middle-class whites were more likely to participate in outdoor recreation and yardwork/gardening activities while middle-class blacks were more likely to participate in socializing/partying and resting/relaxing activities. Lower-class whites were more likely to read while lower-class blacks were more likely to rest or relax. Controlling for race, middle-class blacks were more likely to read while lower-class blacks were more likely to watch television and listen to the radio. Lower-class whites were more likely to watch television, listen to the radio, and party/socialize more often than middle-class whites. Fewer differences were found between lower-class blacks and whites and racial differences were more prevalent for middle-class groups rather than lower-class groups. While some support for the marginality perspective was found, the authors suggested that the overall effect of race was a more important predictor of leisure behavior than social class.

Summary of the Marginality-Ethnicity Perspective

Researchers examining the differences between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites have found mixed results using the marginality-ethnicity perspective. Furthermore, this perspective has been characterized by non-standardized measures where the term *marginality* has been measured using various socio-economic variables and the term *ethnicity* has rarely been measured or has been ineffectively measured by the term *race*. The considerable discrepancies in conceptualization and operationalization of these terms reduces the comparability of one study to another and, as a result, complicates the literature on leisure behavior and race. Because of these challenges, many researchers suggest that the marginality-ethnicity framework is theoretically and

empirically weak in explaining the differences between the leisure behaviors of black and whites (Floyd & Gramann, 1993; Hutchison, 1988; Johnson, Bowker, English, & Worthen, 1997).

Another problem in the literature on leisure behavior and race has been the sparse number of studies that address the differences among the African American population in terms of leisure behaviors. As a result of this limited research, the values, attitudes, and preferences of African Americans have been ignored. Moreover, "a review of the recreation literature suggests little is known about the recreation preferences and patterns of black urban participation" (Dwyer & Hutchison, 1990, p 49). Hence, future work on leisure behavior and race "must produce a more comprehensive understanding of the meaning of race and ethnicity, and produce a research paradigm which allows for a more definitive analysis of differences in the leisure activities of population subgroups" (Hutchison, 1988, p. 11).

Another issue is the changing relations between African Americans and whites in the U.S. over the past 40 years. Studies done in the 1970s may differ from studies done in the 1990s because of the progress made in equality and race relations.

In response to these challenges, West (1989), Philipp (1994), and Floyd (1998) argue that leisure studies "must move beyond the marginality-ethnicity perspective" and must begin to explore alternative approaches to understand the differences between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites. Researchers have used class identification (i.e., self-selected class) (Floyd, Shinew, McGuire, & Noe, 1994), multiple hierarchy (i.e., race, gender, and social class) (Shinew, Floyd, McGuire, & Noe, 1995), and class polarization (i.e., lower, middle, and upper class) (Shinew, Floyd, McGuire, & Noe,

1996) approaches to explain the leisure behaviors of African Americans. However, these approaches have provided very little information on the differences that exist between the leisure preferences of blacks and whites. Philipp (1993, 1994, 1999) argued that the concepts of prejudice and racial discrimination might help to increase the understanding of the differences between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites.

Perceived Racial Discrimination Studies

Since considerable discrepancies surround the marginality-ethnicity framework, many researchers suggest that the concepts of prejudice and racial discrimination might help to explain the differences between the leisure behaviors of blacks and whites (Blahna & Black, 1993; Gobster & Delgado, 1992; Philipp, 1999; West, 1989).

Because racial discrimination has been documented in so many other areas of social life such as housing, education, and employment, West (1989) questions why so little research has examined the influence of racial discrimination on leisure behaviors. Unfortunately, the study of racial discrimination has been a neglected area of research because "the study of discrimination and prejudice is frequently uncomfortable, value-laden, and a difficult undertaking, so researchers tend to avoid it" (Gramann & Allison, 1999, p. 291).

To date, few studies have investigated the influence of racial discrimination on leisure behaviors (Blahna & Black, 1993; Gobster & Delgado, 1992; Lee, 1972; Philipp, 1999; West, 1989, 1993). Lee (1972) was the first to document perceptions of racial discrimination in leisure settings by minorities. He found minorities felt uncomfortable using white parks outside of their own urban neighborhoods. For example, Lee asked a minority respondent why he did not go to a certain park and the respondent replied,

“that’s a white man’s park.” Lee suggests minorities perceive non-local parks as territory belonging to the white man. When minorities attended non-local parks, they were more likely to travel in large groups to promote feelings of safety when entering territories perceived as “hostile.”

Building on the above findings, West (1989) looked at the participation rates of blacks and whites in city and regional parks. While West examined the marginality-ethnicity perspective, he also examined the inter-racial relations perspective. Inter-racial relations were measured by perceptions of direct experiences with racist reactions (i.e., racial name calling), perceptions of anti-black attitudes and prejudice, and perceptions of feeling uncomfortable or unwelcome in city and regional parks. West found significant differences between the feelings of comfort and welcomeness among blacks and whites. The findings showed that blacks were more likely than whites to feel uncomfortable or unwelcome when visiting city and regional parks and their feelings were generated from interactions with other park users. Regardless of social class, both middle-income (52.9 percent) and high-income (42.9 percent) blacks reported problems with other park users. According to West, blacks were more likely to avoid leisure settings where discrimination is perceived, which provided some explanation of the lower participation rates of blacks in park settings.

Gobster and Delgado (1992) found African Americans visiting Chicago’s Lincoln Park felt discriminated against by other parks users and the police. Blahna and Black (1993) found African American and Hispanic students perceived racial discrimination from other park visitors and the police and black residents from St. Louis indicated that racial intimidation had a significant influence on their decisions to avoid camping

(Wallace & Witter, 1992). The findings of these studies provide substantial support to the view that racial discrimination is indeed present in leisure settings and has some level of influence on the leisure behaviors (i.e., park visitation) of African Americans and other minority groups.

In a later discussion, West (1993) hypothesized that African Americans were reluctant to visit predominately white parks because of racial discrimination. He noted that African American youths living in New York City feared traveling to Gateway National Recreation Area. He suggested that fear was linked to perceptions of racial discrimination while traveling through “unknown” surroundings (West, 1993). Furthermore, he suggested the fear of the unknown was also associated with white environments that separated blacks from their destination.

Philipp (1999) examined the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and leisure behavior to determine how “welcome” or “unwelcome” (West, 1989) middle-class African Americans and European Americans felt participating in certain leisure activities. Philipp found significant differences between the feelings of welcomeness by African Americans and European Americans in 16 out of 20 leisure activities. African Americans felt much less welcome in leisure activities compared to whites’ perceptions of how welcome blacks should feel in these leisure activities. The findings suggested that perceptions of racial discrimination might have deterred middle-class African Americans from participating in certain leisure activities.

The discussion above illustrates the pervasiveness of racial discrimination in leisure settings for African Americans and other minority groups. Although only a small number of studies have examined this issue, the influence of racial discrimination on

leisure behavior seems to confirm that African Americans tend to avoid leisure settings where racial discrimination is perceived and as a result tend to have lower participation rates in leisure settings than do whites. Thus, using the concept of racial discrimination seems to provide a more precise understanding of the leisure behaviors of African Americans and further substantiates the need to move beyond the marginality-ethnicity perspective. Because racial discrimination influences leisure behavior in some way, it is plausible that African Americans encounter some form of racial discrimination during their leisure travel. As yet, researchers working in tourism have not empirically examined this relationship. Nonetheless, some work has been completed on the travel behaviors of African Americans.

Travel Behavior and Race

Despite the substantial number of studies on leisure behavior and race, it is difficult to understand this lack of research in the tourism literature (Goodrich, 1985; Philipp, 1993; 1994; TIA, 1996). This is surprising considering African Americans represent more than \$25 billion in travel-spending power and are currently the largest minority population in the U.S. (Brown & Whigham-Desir, 1997). Because the African American population is predicted to increase from 13 percent to 20 percent in the next 10 years (United States Bureau of the Census, 1999), understanding the travel behaviors of African Americans and the factors that influence their travel behaviors justifies scholarly attention.

An exhaustive review of the tourism literature revealed that Goodrich (1985) was the first to examine the leisure-travel behaviors of Black Americans. His sample consisted of 652 black Americans with a mean age of 37, who were married (68 percent),

had some level of higher education (87 percent), and had average annual-household incomes of \$31,200. He found black Americans preferred traveling to (a) learn more about the culture and lifestyles of the people (89 percent), (b) encounter new experiences (61 percent), (c) experience the beauty of the country (40 percent), (d) visit friends, relatives, and the land of ancestors (31 percent), and (e) to conduct business (5 percent). When selecting vacation destinations these travelers were often constrained by factors such as lack of money and time to travel, fear of flying, fear of change and being alone, poor health conditions, contentment in their community, and fear for their safety in unknown places. Based on these findings, Goodrich suggested that the travel behaviors of black Americans are similar to whites, although whites were not included in his sample and no statistical analysis was conducted to validate his assertion.

Philipp (1993) examined the attractiveness of destination attributes to determine whether differences existed between the preferences of middle-class blacks and whites. Using three sets of photographs, researchers asked respondents to indicate which photograph was the most attractive travel destination to the least attractive. Whites ranked photographs that contained mountains, historic villages, waterfalls, Victorian mansions, and historical music and dance higher than blacks. Blacks ranked photographs containing tribal costumes and contemporary stage dances higher than whites. Philipp suggested the differences between the perceived attractiveness of destination attributes among blacks and whites might be linked to perceived acceptance and personal comfort at these destinations, although no empirical test was conducted to support his conclusion.

In a later study, Philipp (1994) examined the travel preferences of blacks and whites living in a southeastern metropolitan area of the U.S. The findings show that

blacks preferred traveling in large groups, having every minute occupied with activities, and preferred eating at well-known restaurant chains whereas whites preferred unplanned stops in their travel, going to streets that were unfamiliar, and staying at motels and hotels they had never heard about. Similar to the conclusions he made in his previous study (1993), Phillip suggested that the differences between the travel preferences of blacks and whites might be linked to the effects of racial discrimination, although again he did not empirically test this conclusion.

The most comprehensive assessment of the travel behaviors of African Americans is found in the Minority Travel Report (Table 2-1) conducted by the Travel Industry Association of American (1996). The report includes a descriptive analysis of the travel behaviors of various minority groups; however, the travel behaviors of African Americans are discussed. The typical African American traveler is older (46 years), educated, married (50 percent), and more affluent. These African American tourists traveled for pleasure (64 percent), visited friends or relatives (41 percent), traveled with their children (21 percent), and used their own personal vehicles (59 percent) during their leisure travel. Because more African Americans tend to live in the South, they were more likely to travel to Southern regions of the U.S.; especially Texas, Georgia, North Carolina, Virginia, and Florida. Additionally, African Americans stayed in hotels, motels, or bed and breakfasts (45 percent), participated in shopping activities (40 percent), visited historical places or museums (17 percent), and attended cultural events (15 percent) while traveling. Although no statistical testing was conducted to examine the differences among the travel behaviors of minority groups, the Minority Travel Report is seminal to the literature on travel behavior and race.

Table 2-1. Travel Behaviors of African Americans from the Minority Travel Report.

Transportation	%	Accommodations	%	Activities	%
Auto/Truck	56.0	Hotel/Motel/B&B	45.0	Shopping	40.0
Airplane	18.0	Private Home	32.0	Outdoor	9.0
Rental Car	12.0	RV/Tent	2.0	Historical/Museums	17.0
Camper/RV	1.0	Condo/Timeshare	3.0	Beaches	9.0
Bus	7.0	Other	8.0	National/State Park	6.0
Ship/Boat	1.0			Cultural Evts./Festivals	15.0
Train	2.0			Amusement Parks	11.0
Other	3.0			Nightlife/Dancing	13.0
				Gambling	11.0
				Sports Events	5.0
				Golf/Tennis/Skiing	1.0

In a study investigating travel expenditures, Agarwal and Yochum (1999) examined the spending patterns of tourists to determine whether racial differences existed. Regardless of race, travel groups with similar socio-demographic backgrounds had similar vacation expenditures. The results suggest that race was not a significant factor in determining the differences among the trip expenditures of tourists. However, the authors did find that income, length of stay, party size, and number of children were significant predictors of travel expenditures.

This section discussed the few studies that examined the travel behaviors or preferences of African Americans. The findings indicated that African Americans are indeed active travelers, although few studies have recognized the pervasiveness of their travel. In an effort to understand the relationship between travel behavior and race, Philipp (1993; 1994) suggested the concept of racial discrimination might be a useful predictor of travel behavior. Since the findings from the tourism and leisure literature have demonstrated the influence of race on behavior, the remaining sections of this chapter highlight other variables that might influence leisure and travel behaviors.

Travel Behavior and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

In a review of the tourism literature, no previous work has examined the relationships between the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and social class (i.e., education and income), gender, and life stage. However, tourism studies have examined these variables individually specific to whites and have found that social class (Gottlieb, 1982; Graburn, 1983; Thurot & Thurot, 1983), gender (Bartos, 1973; 1982; Davidson, 1996; Deem, 1996; Squire, 1994), and life stage (Anderson & Langmeyer, 1982; Anderson & Littrell, 1996; Gibson & Yiannakis, in press) influence travel behaviors in some way. Likewise, a considerable number of leisure studies have found that that social class, gender (Deem, 1982; Firestone & Shelton, 1994; Green, Hebron, & Woodard, 1988; Henderson, 1996; Kay, 1996; Shaw, 1985; Wearing, 1993; Wimbush & Talbot, 1988), and life stage (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Kelly, 1975; Witt & Goodale, 1981) influence the leisure behaviors of whites. However, few leisure studies have examined these variables in relation to the leisure behaviors of African Americans (Shinew, Floyd, McGuire, & Noe, 1995; Shinew, Floyd, McGuire, & Noe, 1996). The sections to follow first discuss the influence of social class, gender, and life stage in the literature on leisure behavior and then discuss the tourism studies that have addressed the effects of social class, gender, and life stage on travel behaviors.

Leisure Behavior Literature

Social class and gender. Few studies have examined the influence of social class and gender in relation to the leisure behaviors or preferences of African Americans. Shinew et al. (1995) examined the differences between the leisure preferences of African Americans and whites by gender and subjective social class (i.e., self-defined class). The

authors found that working-class African American men and women had similar leisure preferences compared to middle-class African American women. However, their leisure preferences differed compared to working-class white men and women and middle-class African American men. The findings suggest that middle-class African American women and white women and men had similar leisure preferences whereas working-class African American and white men and women do not.

In a later study, Shinew et al. (1996) examined the leisure preferences of African Americans to determine the influence of gender and socioeconomic status (i.e., education and income) on leisure preferences. The authors found that African American men and women with higher levels of education and income had similar leisure preferences whereas African Americans with lower educational and income levels had significantly different leisure preferences. Also, significant differences were found among the leisure behaviors of African American women by class. The findings suggest that gender and class influence the leisure preferences of African Americans.

Specific to whites, many researches have examined the relationships between social class and gender (Deem, 1982; Firestone & Shelton, 1994; Green, Hebron, & Woodard, 1988; Henderson, 1996; Kay, 1996; Shaw, 1985; Wearing, 1993; Wimbush & Talbot, 1988). Most of these studies have followed a Marxist focus on class and economic roles, but also work from the principle that patriarchy is a powerful ideology that oppresses women and relegates them to a lower class existence devoid of power and control (Delphy, 1980). From this perspective, leisure inequalities for women are rooted in their relationship with men and their class background (Deem, 1982; 1986; Chambers, 1986; Green et al., 1988; Wimbush & Talbot, 1988). Deem (1982) and Green et al.

(1988) found that married-working-class women experienced more male control over their access to leisure compared to married-middle-class women. Likewise, Chambers (1986) found that domestic responsibilities and socio-cultural barriers also had a substantial effect on the leisure behaviors of working-class women.

Life stage. Other researchers have used a life cycle perspective to examine the influence of changing roles on leisure behavior (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Kelly, 1975; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1974; Witt & Goodale, 1981). Rapoport and Rapoport suggest that various preoccupations rise and fall in their importance at different stages in the family life cycle. The establishment period of the family life cycle denotes the presence and influence of children on parent's role responsibilities. The establishment period is classified into three phases: Early (pre-school children), mid (school aged children), and late (teenage children). The early establishment phase with the addition of children is deemed the most demanding and is the most constraining on parent's available leisure time. Various studies have followed this line of research (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Kelly, 1975; Witt & Goodale, 1981). Subsequently, feminist researchers like Horna (1989), Osgood and Lee (1993), and Henderson (1994) adopted a family life course perspective to examine the meanings associated with leisure and gender to understand the differences between the leisure behaviors of men and women in terms of their access to leisure at different life stages.

The above discussion has demonstrated the effects of social class, gender, and life cycle on leisure behaviors. These variables influence the choices that people make during their leisure experiences and as a result these variables are worthy of examination when investigating the factors that influence the leisure behaviors of various groups. The

discussion moves forward by addressing the tourism studies that have examined these variables in relation to travel behaviors.

Travel Behavior Literature

Social class. While no empirical data support the relationship between social class and travel behavior, researchers have theoretically examined this link (Gottlieb, 1982; Graburn, 1983; Thurot & Thurot, 1983). The term *social class* refers to dimensions of socioeconomic status such as income, occupational prestige, power, and education (Macionis, 1997). According to Weber (1978), members of a class share common life chances and an individual's class situation is identified within a market situation. Class position does not necessarily lead to class-determined economic or political action. Rather social prestige and power are derived from social class status. The assumption behind this theoretical perspective as it relates to tourism suggests that lower-, middle-, and upper-class tourists are likely to have differing travel styles or behaviors because of social class status, which is derived from their level of income, occupational prestige, power, and education.

Gottlieb (1982) suggests that middle- and upper-class Americans are likely to engage in two types of vacations involving the inversion of their social class position: Peasant for a Day and Queen (King) for a Day. Upper and upper-middle-class Americans are likely to participate in "peasant for a day" vacations and are likely to interact with the lower-class people in the host culture they are visiting whereas the reverse is true back home. Lower-middle and middle-class Americans are likely to participate in "queen (king) for a day" vacations, which temporarily raise their class status by spending lavishly in their travel whereas back home they are much more

conscientious about staying on some sort of a budget. Similarly, Thurot and Thurot (1983) suggest that lower-class tourists are likely to go into debt in order to temporarily acquire a more prestigious place in society (i.e., travel style) while on vacation. In contrast, upper-class tourists are likely to distance themselves from mass tourism by purchasing seclusion from the crowds of ordinary tourists.

Graburn (1983) suggests that discretionary income, cultural self-confidence, and symbolic inversions are measures of social class and are useful predictors of touristic patterns and touristic styles. Cultural self-confidence in relation to travel refers to the familiarity of customs or languages of a particular place or the ability to use transportation systems with ease. Cultural self-confidence arises out of increased educational and numerous travel experiences that tend to enhance the tourist's levels of comfort in unfamiliar travel settings. For example, many affluent working-class groups in the U.S. are uncomfortable traveling outside of their familiar environments because they lack the cultural self-confidence to find pleasure in these new unfamiliar experiences, which is linked to their level of education. Also, Graburn suggests that inversions or changes in ordinary behaviors, typically practiced back home, are reliable predictors of touristic patterns. Behaviors back home are reversed or suspended in some way and while on vacation meal times, going out, style of dress, and activities become more flexible (Graburn, 1983). The tourist "chooses those particular factors that they are not able to change in their home lives, within the constraints or opportunities offered by income and cultural self-confidence" (p. 23).

Bourdieu (1984) discusses the concepts of "cultural capital" and "economic capital" to address the issue of social class. His thesis builds on the idea that there is

unequal access to cultural resources in Western society and these inequalities reproduce class structures. More specifically, the notion of social class is not simply linked to the accumulation of wealth but is also linked to the accumulation of culture. According to this view, accumulating “cultural capital” is as important as the accumulation of economic capital for upward social mobility or improved social-class status. Hence, blue-collar workers with considerable economic capital may not have access to diverse cultural resources and this in turn decreases their chances for improved social-class status. Likewise, blue-collar workers will never gain access to elite circles during their travels because they lack the cultural capital to do so even though they might have the economic capital.

The above studies discussed social class as a predictor of travel style and behavior. This theory postulates that lower-, middle-, and upper-class tourists are likely to seek different tourist experiences because of social-class status, which is linked to the accumulation of cultural capital. The accumulation of cultural capital is often associated with higher levels of education, to some extent income, and occupational status. In particular, lower-class tourists are likely to seek familiarity in their travel experiences because they lack the cultural-self confidence to be more adventurous. They might also be more likely to emulate the behaviors of the upper class while on vacation. Upper-class tourists are more likely to seek novelty in their travel experiences and might pursue a vacation type that includes social interaction with the lower classes in less familiar settings. While no empirical evidence supports this assumption, some measure of social class (i.e., income, occupational prestige, power, and education) might be useful to further the understanding of variations in travel behaviors.

Gender. Researchers have examined the gendered structure of the tourism workforce (Enloe, 1989; Fairbairn-Dunlop, 1994; Hennessy, 1994; Leontidou, 1994), sex tourism (Enloe, 1989; Hall, 1994; Opperman, 1999), tourism marketing (Marshment, 1997; Richter, 1994), and tourism attractions (Aitchison, 1996; Richter, 1994). These studies have highlighted the differences between men and women as producers in the tourism industry. According to Kinnaird, Kothari, and Hall (1994) “women and men are involved differently within the tourism processes, and, as a result, the relationships, consequences and the eventual configuration of the tourism experience for hosts and guests is gender specific” (p. 7). Hence, access to power and control in the tourism industry is heavily contingent upon gender-specific roles. The term *gender* refers to “a system of culturally constructed identities expressed in ideologies of masculinity and femininity, interacting with socially structured relationships in divisions of labour and leisure, sexuality and power between women and men” (Swain, 1995, p. 258).

Other researchers have examined the effects of gender on the tourist experience (Davidson, 1996; Deem, 1996; Squire, 1994; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992). These studies have found that gender significantly influences the travel behaviors of men and women. According to Kinnaird and Hall (1994), “all aspects of tourism-related development and activity embody gender relations” (p. 5).

Squire (1994) examined the meaning of travel for tourists visiting Beatrix Potter’s Hill Top Farm in England to determine the influence of gender. Her study reflects the travel experiences of female tourists because more women tended to visit Beatrix Potter’s Hill Top Farm. Female tourists felt their experience at the farm was linked to Beatrix Potter stories and the memories associated with childhood and family life. Some of the

male respondents described their visit as a “girls” experience. Furthermore, she found female tourists were more likely to purchase souvenirs and both men and women associated souvenir purchases as feminine activities. Most of the men agreed their presence at the gift shop was because of their wives or girlfriends. She concluded the visit at Beatrix Potter’s Hill Top Farm was a considerably different experience for male and female tourists.

Davidson (1996) examined the holiday experiences of women with children who lived in an Australian rural and service community. The primary meaning of the holiday experiences for these women was associated with rest, less pressure, and a space to maintain and develop relationships. However, women still participated in work-related activities (non-paid), but the pressures associated with these work-related activities were minimized because of the act of “getting away” (i.e., the vacation). The underlying factor in the holiday experience for women was the “reduction in pressure that is associated with a change in site and family function” (p. 95). In addition, some of these women used the holiday experience to enhance their relationships with their spouse, children, and friends while others used the holiday experience for their own self-development. As a result, the holiday experience for women in this study created a decrease in their domestic responsibilities and increased their opportunities to develop meaningful relationships and the holiday experiences were linked to participation in activities. According to Davidson, the concepts of relationship and identity are useful in understanding the holiday experiences of women, which may differ from the male holiday experience.

Deem (1996) looked at the holiday experiences of women who were visiting or lived in Lancaster, England to determine the ways they consumed places, regarded time, and spaces. For those women who reported taking "holidays at home," participation in regular routines and domestic responsibilities were still present, although there was a clear absence of paid work. Deem suggested holidays at home might be related to a different sense of quality about the time, space, and place. These women took holidays at home because they took care of their children during school holidays, lacked money and holiday companions, and used paid leave to catch up on household chores. On the other hand, the women who took holidays away from home were more likely to describe their holiday experience as sociable leisure activities and their holiday experience contrasted to their regular routines at home.

Specific to place, women residents who were mothers and older were more likely to perceive certain areas of the city as risky. Deem suggested the women's descriptions of the city as risky was related to fear and that the caring and domestic roles of women might affect their cultural perceptions of what constitutes risk. The findings from this study suggest that men and women may have different holiday experiences, have varying perceptions of risk in travel, and are likely to consume places differently.

Hsu and Sung (1997) examined the travel behaviors of international students at a large Midwestern university in the U.S. Females were more likely to travel by air, eat self-prepared meals, and participate in touring activities. In contrast, males were more likely to participate in sport-related activities. As a result, Hsu and Sung concluded that gender was a significant factor in determining the travel behaviors of international students.

Carr (1999) investigated the leisure activities of young tourists in Southwest England to determine whether gender influenced their travel-activity behaviors. Carr found only one significant difference between the behaviors of male and female tourists, in that female tourists were more likely to shop for souvenirs. Carr suggested young men and women are becoming more alike in their leisure behaviors.

Frew and Shaw (1999) examined the relationships between personality, gender, and tourism behavior. They found gender differences between personality types. The most common personality type for the women was social (58.5 percent) whereas men's was realistic (27.4 percent). In addition, Frew and Shaw found significant differences between gender and actual visitation to attractions (seven out of 31) and in the intention to visit these attractions (10 out of 31). The authors suggest the results of this study should be interpreted with caution since not all of the relationships between gender, personality, and tourism behavior were significant. As a result, some support was found to suggest that there are differences among travel behavior, personality type, and gender.

The above discussion reviews the literature on travel behavior and gender. The literature suggests that men and women have varying gendered experiences and perceptions related to their travel behaviors. In many instances gender in some way affects travel behavior. Subsequently, the influence of gender appears to be an important factor in understanding travel behavior. The next section discusses life stage as another important factor that might influence travel behaviors.

Life stage. Researchers have used the life cycle (Anderson & Langmeyer, 1982; Anderson & Littrell, 1996; Bartos, 1973; 1982; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992; in press) and family life cycle (Lawson, 1991) perspectives to explain travel behaviors. The life cycle

framework provided by Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978) has been followed in the travel behavior literature. The life cycle perspective suggests that tasks or roles in life are likely to rise and fall in their level of importance at different stages in the life cycle. Hence, travel behavior is likely to be affected by the fluctuations in tasks or roles during various stages of the life cycle.

Levinson et al. (1978) studied 40 adult males and 45 adult women (Levinson, 1995) aged between 35 and 45 to understand the series of stages that adults go through as they develop. The authors suggest that men and women evolve through 10 age-linked developmental periods: early adult transition (age 17 – 22), entering the adult world (age 22 – 28), age 30 transition (age 28- 33), settling down (age 33 - 40), midlife transition (age 40 – 45), entering middle adulthood (age 45 – 50), age 50 transition (age 50 – 55), culmination of middle adulthood (age 55 – 60), late adult transition (age 60 – 65), and late adulthood (age 65 and above). A repeated process of structure building and transitional phases characterizes these developmental periods. Structure-building phases include the individual's pursuit of goals, which alternate with transitional phases where the individual questions his or her life decisions.

Bartos (1973) conducted one of the earliest studies on women and travel. She examined working and non-working women's pleasure travel using a life cycle perspective (i.e., presence of spouse or children). She found unattached-working women and married-working women without children or children not living in the home were more likely to participate in pleasure-related travel than working and non-working women with children. As a result, working women without children had higher rates of pleasure travel because of job-related income and lack of childcare responsibilities.

Likewise, in a later study Bartos (1982) found women with career-oriented attitudes were more likely to travel compared to women with non-career-oriented attitudes. The findings from both of these studies suggest that stage in the life cycle and the presence of children are useful predictors in determining women's tendencies for pleasure travel.

Anderson and Langmeyer (1982) used life stages to profile travelers under and over the age of 50 to examine the relationship between travel behavior and age. They found that the over-50 group preferred simpler, inexpensive, pre-planned pleasure trips for rest and relaxation and to visit friends and family. On the other hand, the under-50 group was more likely to participate in outdoor recreation activities and trips to amusement facilities but still sought rest and relaxation in their pleasure trips. Hence, the under-50 group was more active while on vacation and used vacations to escape from everyday routines.

Anderson and Littrell (1996) examined women tourists and their souvenir purchases using Levinson's life-cycle model to determine whether trip planning and souvenir purchasing patterns were similar in relation to age. Half of the women were aged between 17-42 years (Early Adulthood), while the other women were between the ages of 43-65 (Middle Adulthood). The women were well educated, had substantial incomes, and were experienced travelers. After analyzing the interviews, Anderson and Littrell found five group profiles had emerged from the data: (1) goal-attainment travelers, (2) low-involvement travelers, (3) eclectic travelers, (4) centrist travelers, and (5) laid-back travelers. Because women from both age groups were represented in each tourist profile, the findings showed that life stage was not a factor in determining the tourist behaviors of the women in this study.

Gibson and Yiannakis (in press) investigated the leisure-based tourist role preferences among men and women using Levinson's et al. (1978) life-cycle model. Levinson's suggests that the life cycle consists of four overlapping stages: childhood and adolescence (birth to age 22), early adulthood (ages 17 to 45), middle adulthood (ages 40 to 65), and late adulthood (ages 60 to 85). Gibson and Yiannakis found four general trends. First, as age increases, travelers were less likely to express a preference for the following tourist roles: action seeker, sport lover, thrill seeker, explorer, drifter, and sun lover. Men were more likely to have higher preferences for action seeker tourist roles compared to women. Second, as age increases, travelers were likely to prefer the following tourist roles: anthropologist, archaeologist, high-class tourist, educational tourist, and organized mass tourist, which also tend to vary by gender. Third, preferences for the seeker and jetsetter tourist roles varied in relation to age and gender. Finally, preferences for the independent mass tourist (type I and II) and escapist (type I and II) tourist roles were relatively stable across the life span and some variation in tourist role preferences were evident among men and women. As a result, tourist role preferences were associated with stable and reoccurring patterns across the life cycle, but differences in tourist role preferences among men and women might be linked to societal expectations of gender role behaviors and socio-psychological needs at different stages of the life course.

Lawson (1991) examined the influence of the family life cycle on travel behaviors. Lawson constructed eight stages of the family life cycle using Wells and Gubar's (1966) model as a foundation. Lawson suggests the presence and departure of children, retirement, and old age mark transitional stages in the family life cycle. Lawson

found significant differences in vacation expenditures across all eight stages of the family life cycle, with the exception of miscellaneous and per-person expenditures. The greatest vacation expenditure was in the full nest III (older children, possibly non-dependent children) or fifth stage of the family life cycle while young singles (under 25) or the first stage of the family life cycle spent the least. The greatest per-person expenditure was in the solitary survivor (retired) or the eighth stage of the family life cycle while full nest I (pre-school children) or the third stage of the family life cycle spent the least. Lawson also found significant differences across the family life cycle between types of activities, accommodations, length of stay, number of locations visited, and transportation.

Lawson characterized travel behavior in relation to each stage of the family life cycle. Young singles (under age 25) were highly active, tend to stay an average of one month, but were likely to seek low-priced travel arrangements. Young couples (no children) were likely to stay at least two weeks, visit more places, and participate in organized tours. Full nest I (pre-school children) tend to visit friends and relatives and participate in the least amount of activities compared to other life stages of the life cycle because of young children. Full nest II (school-aged children) was similar to full nest I; however, their participation in activities was somewhat higher and their reliance on friends and relatives was not as great. Full nest III (older children, possibly non-dependent children) tend to have more income, increased activity levels, and fewer constraints compared to full nest I and II. Lawson suggested this stage in the family life course was the most difficult to characterize because their vacation patterns were similar to the average. Empty nest I (still working, no children), stay at least two weeks, and participate in organized tours, which was similar to the vacation patterns of young

couples. However, empty nest I was more likely to be financially secure compared to young couples. Empty nest II (retired) stay almost three weeks, have the highest participation rates in the number of locations visited, spend less on transportation and accommodations, and age was more of a factor on their activities preferences. Finally, solitary survivors (retired) stay almost one month like young singles, visit few places, visit friends and relatives, and age has the most constraining effect on this stage because activity levels are low. While Lawson suggests that the family life cycle model is advantageous in terms of market segmentation, he also points out that the model "is never likely to cover more than 80% of the tourism market" (p. 17).

The preceding discussion reviewed the literature on travel behavior in relation to the life cycle and family life cycle perspectives. Because travel patterns are somewhat consistent across stages of the life cycle, age seems to be an important predictor of travel behavior. In particular, the use of Levinson's life-cycle perspective to analyze travel behaviors demonstrates that travel behaviors and tourist role preferences are associated with age. In summary, Levinson's life-cycle model applied to travel behavior might result in a better explanation of change and stability in travel-behavior patterns.

Chapter Summary

The beginning of this chapter discussed the concept of tourism as a specialized form of leisure behavior and therefore this view characterizes the tourist as a leisure traveler rather than a business traveler. Since the tourist exhibits leisure behaviors, the review discussed studies pertaining to leisure behavior and race. These studies suggest that there is a significant relationship between leisure behavior and race, although the marginality-ethnicity perspective is empirically weak in explaining the differences

between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites. Other researchers suggested that the literature on leisure behavior and race must move beyond the marginality-ethnicity perspective and should explore the concept of racial discrimination to further increase the understanding of the differences between the leisure behaviors of African Americans and whites. The literature suggested that African Americans tended to avoid leisure settings where racial discrimination is perceived, which seems to explain the proportionately lower participation rates of African Americans in recreational activities compared to whites. Because the literature on leisure behavior and race illustrates the influence of racial discrimination on leisure behaviors, it seems plausible that African Americans may encounter some form of racial discrimination during their leisure travel. In addition to the concept of racial discrimination, the literature also suggests that the theoretical implications of social class and the effects of gender and life stage might have some level of influence on travel behaviors. Subsequently, the combination of racial discrimination, social class, gender, and life stage might increase the understanding of the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. As a result, the purpose of this study was to empirically examine the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and to determine the extent to which perceived racial discrimination, social class, gender, and life stage influence their travel behaviors.

CHAPTER III METHODS

This study was conducted to identify the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and to determine the extent to which perceived racial discrimination, social class, gender, and life stage or life span affects the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. Those participants who were African American, had attended or graduated from the University of Florida, had traveled for leisure within the past two years at least 100 miles one way, and had stayed at least 24 hours overnight qualified for the study. This chapter discusses the variables measured in the study and the research design.

Questionnaire Design

A fixed-choice questionnaire was used as the research instrument, which required approximately 20 minutes to complete. The questionnaire measured travel behavior, perceived racial discrimination, the influence of perceived racial discrimination on travel behavior, and socio-demographic information. The dependent and independent variables are discussed below.

Dependent Variable

Travel behavior. Goeldner, Ritchie, and McIntosh (2000) developed a model of the tourism industry consisting of four sectors: (1) transportation, (2) hospitality (food and lodging), (3) channels of distribution (travel agents, Internet, consolidators, and tour

operators), and (4) attractions, recreation, and entertainment. With the exception of channels of distribution, this study followed the above model to measure travel behavior. Travel behavior was measured by the frequency of use specific to the (1) types of transportation (car, rental car, airplane, ship/boat, train, bus, city bus, and bus tour), (2) types of accommodations (hotel/motel, resort, bed and breakfast, RV/tent, and condo/time share), (3) types of food-service facilities (sit down restaurants, fast food restaurants, cafeterias, and hotel/motel restaurants), and (4) participation in activities during leisure travel. Participation in activities was measured using a combination of activities derived from the work by Phillip (1999) and TIA (1996); however, the researcher included additional activities to the list (i.e., religious events, performing arts, festivals mostly white, festivals mostly black, group tours mostly white, group tours mostly black, and water sports). See Appendix for a detailed description of the activities. The four items measuring travel behavior were based on a four-point Likert scale consisting of 1 = Never, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Often, and 4 = Always.

Independent Variables

Perceived racial discrimination. Previous studies have shown that racial and ethnic groups tend to avoid leisure settings where prejudice and racial discrimination is perceived (Blahna & Black, 1993; Gobster & Delgado, 1992; Philipp, 1999; West, 1989). Feagin (1991) found African Americans experienced some form of racial discrimination in their use of public places and accommodations. Feagin categorized these racial discriminatory acts into five progressive stages:

- 1) avoidance actions, such as a white couple crossing the street when a black male approaches;

- 2) rejection actions, such as poor service in public accommodations;
- 3) verbal attacks, such as shouting racial remarks in the streets;
- 4) physical threats and harassment by white police officers; and
- 5) physical threats and attacks from other whites, such as attacks by white supremacists in the street (Feagin, 1991).

Given this framework, the measure for racial discrimination used Feagin's findings to conceptualize perceived racial discrimination for this study. Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they had experienced perceived racial discrimination in relation to their use of (1) transportation (car, rental car, airplane, ship/boat, train, bus, city bus, and bus tour), (2) accommodations (hotel/motel, resort, bed and breakfast, RV/tent, and condo/time share), (3) food-service facilities (sit down restaurants, fast food restaurants, cafeterias, and hotel/motel restaurants), and (4) participation in activities during their leisure travel. Perceived racial discrimination was based on a five-point Likert scale consisting of 1 = Never, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Often, 4 = Always, and 5 = N/A.

Respondents were also asked to indicate whether their experiences with perceived racial discrimination influenced their use of (1) transportation (car, rental car, airplane, ship/boat, train, bus, city bus, and bus tour), (2) accommodations (hotel/motel, resort, bed and breakfast, RV/tent, and condo/time share), (3) food-service facilities (sit down restaurants, fast food restaurants, cafeterias, and hotel/motel restaurants), and (4) participation in activities during their leisure travel. The influence of perceived racial discrimination was based on a four-point Likert scale consisting of 1 = Decrease in Use, 2 = No Change, 3 = Increase in Use, and 4 = N/A.

Socio-structural variables. Prior researchers have substantiated the importance of using social class (Gottlieb, 1982; Graburn, 1983; Thurot & Thurot, 1983), gender (Davidson, 1996; Deem, 1996; Squire, 1994), and life stage (Anderson & Langmeyer, 1982; Anderson & Littrell, 1996; Yiannakis & Gibson, in press) to explain travel behaviors. These variables were included in the study. Social class was measured using the items education and income and then due to low cell sizes, were collapsed into three categories of education and three categories of income. Because the sampling frame came from the University of Florida's alumni database, all of the respondents had some level of higher education and the scores for education ranged from 1 = some undergraduate work to 6 = Ed.D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D. This variable was then collapsed into three levels of education where 1 = Lower Education (bachelors degree and some graduate work), 2 = Middle Education (masters degree and some work on Ed.D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D.), and 3 = Higher Education (Ed.D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D.). Income was scored from 1 = Less than \$15,000 to 9 = \$85,000 and Above. Again, this variable was collapsed into three levels of income where 1 = Low Income (\$54,999 and below), 2 = Middle Income (\$55,000 to \$84,999), and 3 = High Income (\$85,000 and above). Gender was a nominal variable that was coded 1 = Male and 2 = Female. Life stage was measured by year born and were collapsed into two categories based on Levinson's life-cycle model where 1 = aged 17 to 45 (Early Adulthood) and 2 = aged 46 to 65 (Middle Adulthood).

Sample

In order to carry out this study, the researcher needed to survey a large African American population. For a small donation, the researcher was given access to

University of Florida's Alumni Association database. The Alumni Association informed the researcher that the racial category of black included a broad range of ethnic groups. The black racial category included African American, Jamaican, West Indian, Black Puerto Rican, Haitian, or Nigerian. Thus, neither the Alumni Association nor the researcher knew if the entire sampling frame consisted of African Americans. Because of this lack of information, the researcher was unable to determine whether this issue biased the non-response rate. The database consisted of 9,000 blacks that had attended the University of Florida between the years of 1970 to 2000 and was used to select a random sample of 800 African Americans or blacks that was stratified by gender to include 400 men and 400 women. The use of random selection addresses external validity by giving each subject in the population an equal or proportionate chance of being included in the sample, which helps to improve the degree of representativeness of the sample by reducing the degree of sampling error (Babbie, 1992). A screening question on the survey (Q13) was used to limit the study sample to African Americans.

Problems and Strategies when investigating African American Groups

When conducting research on African American groups, considerable disadvantages may arise for white researchers (Cox, 1990). First, African Americans are likely to distrust the research efforts by white researchers. The source of this distrust toward whites might have originated from the Tuskegee Alabama experiments, which were conducted by white doctors (Feagin & Sikes, 1994). In this study, 430 blacks were led to believe they were suffering from medical conditions other than syphilis even though the doctors knew their symptoms were caused by syphilis. Furthermore, the black participants were never provided with treatment even though there was a cure for

syphilis. Consequently, some of the participants died and as a result of the study, some African Americans may feel that white researchers have ulterior motives (McAvoy, Winter, Outley, McDonald, & Chavez, 2000).

Second, because white researchers are socially distant from the culture under study, some researchers suggest that African American researchers should examine African American groups because they are familiar with the views and experiences of the group under study (Anderson, 1997; Standfield & Dennis, 1993). The combination of the sense of distrust felt by some African Americans and the fact that white researchers are socially distant from the group under investigation may provide some insights into the lower response rates of African Americans to mail surveys compared to whites (Sudman, 1994; Wicks & Norman, 1996).

In light of these problems, should white researchers ignore African Americans as an area of study? According to Edwards (1990) and Henderson (1998), ignoring diverse populations because the researcher is white would be “a great travesty” for leisure studies. Henderson (1998) suggests “outsiders” or those external from the population under study can conduct research on diverse groups if the researcher is “sensitive” to the methods and strategies employed in the study. For example, studies utilizing face-to-face and telephone surveys with African Americans have experienced considerably higher response rates compared to studies using mail surveys (Dillman, Sinclair, & Clark, 1993; Shinew et al., 1995; Shinew et al., 1996; Wicks & Norman, 1996). Because these types of survey methods increase the social interactions between the researcher and the respondents, this might help to minimize the sense of distrust felt by the respondents. However, because these types of survey methods are likely to decrease anonymity and

confidentiality, respondents are more likely to express more socially desirable attitudes (Krysan, Schuman, Scott, & Beatty, 1994) or responses.

Another strategy to consider when working with African American or diverse populations might be to establish “a climate of openness, respect, and shared information” whereby the study respondents are given meaningful roles during the research process (Henderson, 1998; McAvoy et al., 2000). This strategy has been successful for researchers conducting focus groups with communities of color (Blahna & Black, 1993) and, as a result, this method helped to minimize the researcher’s social distance from the respondents and the respondents were more willing to assist the researcher in making the necessary introductions to conduct the research. Additionally, if the respondents or “gatekeepers” of the African American community are willing to continue participation in the research process, their acceptance of the research is likely to contribute to the legitimacy of the study (McAvoy et al., 2000).

The discussion above illustrates the problems that may arise for white researchers investigating communities of color and addresses possible strategies. First, it is difficult to overcome the sense of distrust felt by some African Americans toward white researchers and mail surveys. However, the combination of these factors seems to provide some explanation of the low response rates of African American to mail surveys. Second, because of these challenges researchers need to employ sensitive strategies and methods when studying African American groups. As a result, the researcher in this study attempted to use sensitive strategies during the development of the cover letter and questionnaire and attempted to minimize the researcher’s social distance from the culture under study by pre-testing the questionnaire with an African American group. While the

literature suggests that face-to-face or telephone surveys usually result in higher response rates compared to mail surveys, the researcher was constrained by limited financial resources. Thus, a mail survey was used to counteract the researcher's social distance from the group under investigation and the researcher's financial constraints. There also were no clues as to the race of the investigator apparent to the respondent.

Pre-Testing the Questionnaire

In an attempt to further minimize the researcher's social distance from the culture under investigation and to improve the content validity of the questionnaire items, a small group of African Americans ($n = 5$) with similar education and income levels to the study's sample were administered questionnaires. The five African Americans were asked to indicate whether (1) a positive or negative response to an item would be a valid assessment of a person's perception of perceived racial discrimination; (2) the statements were written in such a way that it would not be confusing; and (c) if there were any additional statements that were relevant to the study (Green, 1995). The feedback from the group was useful and provided insights into the sensitive nature of some of the questions. Subsequently, the items in the questionnaire were evaluated and changes were made.

Data Collection

The data were obtained using a self-administered fix-choice questionnaire. In an attempt to illicit a good response rate, the collection of the data followed a heavily modified Dillman (1978) approach. This approach was heavily modified because the

researcher was limited by financial constraints and as a result this prevented the researcher from conducting a second mail out.

The only mailing of the questionnaires included a multicultural graphic image on the cover page of the questionnaire. To minimize the respondent's possible feelings of distrust and to enhance the credibility of the study, the researcher sought endorsement from a prominent African American community leader. Since all the respondents had attended the University of Florida, Mrs. Delphine Jackson, President Elect of the University of Florida Alumni Association and former President of the University of Florida Black Alumni Association was asked to endorse the study. Her endorsement of the study was an attempt to enhance the credibility of the study and as a result her name and signature were included on the cover letter (Appendix). Also, the content of the cover letter was designed to be sensitive to the possible problem of racial discrimination and leisure travel and was worded in such a way that it would not be offensive. Furthermore, the respondents were asked to assist the researcher to create an awareness of the extent to which racial discrimination occurs during their leisure travel. Additionally, the issue of confidentiality, code numbers, and the availability of the results were also discussed in the cover letter. Finally, the respondents were informed that the University of Florida's Alumni Association was not affiliated with the study. Each questionnaire was numbered sequentially to monitor and track respondents and non-respondents.

Three weeks after the initial mailing of the questionnaires, the researcher mailed follow-up postcards to non-respondents explaining the importance of their responses and the researcher's home telephone number and email address were included. The postcard

reminders were intended to help increase the response rate and to reduce non-response bias (Dillman, 1978). Because the researcher was limited by economic resources only one mail out of the questionnaire was conducted.

Recoding of the Data and Data Analysis

The purpose of the study was to identify the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and to determine the extent to which perceived racial discrimination, social class, gender, and life stage affects the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 10.0 was used to analyze the data. Analysis of univariate frequencies displayed distribution scores determining normality and missing values for each item in the sample. Due to low cell sizes, education and income were recoded into three categories of education and three categories of income. Similarly, life stage was recoded into two categories that followed Levinson's (1978) life-cycle model.

The data were also recoded for the questions that included the statements (a) have you experienced racial discrimination using types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities and (b) have your experiences of perceived racial discrimination influenced you're use or non-use of types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities. Because the questions were worded in such a way that it might have been confusing to the respondents, all of the questions were recoded. For example, if a respondent had never used a type of transportation, accommodation, food-service facility, or participated in an activity then their response to the statement have you experienced racial discrimination using types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and

participation in activities should have resulted in not applicable. Likewise, if the respondent had used a type of transportation, accommodation, food-service facility, or participated in an activity then their response to the statement have you experienced racial discrimination using types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities should have ranged from 1 = never to 4 = always. If the respondent had never perceived racial discrimination then their response to the statement have your experiences of perceived racial discrimination influenced you're use or non-use of types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities should have resulted in the response not applicable. Thus, the scale for perceived racial discrimination was recoded and ranged from 1 = never to 4 = always and 5 = not applicable was recoded as missing items. Likewise, the scale for the influence of perceived racial discrimination was recoded and ranged from 1 = decrease in use to 3 = increase in use and 4 = not applicable was recoded as missing items.

Data transformation procedures were used to compute the categories of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, activities, transportation and perceived racial discrimination, accommodations and perceived racial discrimination, food-service facilities and perceived racial discrimination, and activities perceived racial discrimination into eight new variables. The newly computed variables were transportation leisure behaviors, accommodation leisure behaviors, food-service facility leisure behaviors, activity leisure behaviors, perceived racial discrimination in transportation, perceived racial discrimination in accommodations, perceived racial discrimination in food-service facilities, and perceived racial discrimination in activities.

Descriptive statistics were used to identify the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, their perceptions of racial discrimination, and the influence of perceived racial discrimination during their leisure travel. The percentages of the descriptive statistics were based on actual rather than valid percentages, which totals the number of respondents per category rather than the total number of respondents in the sample. The t-test procedure was used to determine if there were significant differences in means between two groups. If the p-value associated with the t-test is small ($p < 0.05$), there is evidence to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative. In other words, there is evidence that the mean is significantly different than the hypothesized value. If the p-value associated with the t-test is not small ($p > 0.05$), there is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis, and there is evidence that the mean is not different from the hypothesized value. The one-way ANOVA was used to test significant differences in means between three or more groups. A low p-value for this test suggests the null hypothesis should be rejected in favor of the alternative. In other words, there is evidence that at least one pair of means are not equal. If a significant difference is found among the groups, then it is necessary to use a post-hoc or multiple-comparison test (i.e., Scheffé) to determine exactly which groups are significantly different from the others.

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the extent to which social class, gender, life stage, and the computed perceived racial discrimination (i.e., transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and activities) could individually and collectively account for variation in the computed leisure-travel behaviors (i.e., transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and activities) of African Americans. Multiple regression analysis uses two or more independent variables to

predict scores of a single dependent variable. The coefficient of determination or R^2 describes the proportion of variance in Y that is contained in X or represents the proportion of the variance explained by the model. A low p-value for this test (less than 0.05) means that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two variables. More specifically, the p value for the independent variable tells us whether the independent variable has statistically significant predictive capability. To rule out multicollinearity among the independent variables, the Pearson product moment correlation is used, which measures the strength of the linear relationship between two variables. The correlation coefficient, r , measures the strength of the association between X and Y and can take on the values from -1.0 to 1.0. where -1.0 is a perfect negative (inverse) correlation, 0.0 is no correlation, and 1.0 is a perfect positive correlation. A low p-value for this test (less than 0.05) suggests that there is a statistically significant linear relationship between the two variables. Multicollinearity is implied if a high correlation exists between two independent variables. If multicollinearity exists the variable or variables are removed from the analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to identify the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and to determine the extent to which perceived racial discrimination, social class (i.e., education and income), gender, and life stage affects the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. This chapter has been divided into the following sections (a) Descriptive Statistics, (b) Leisure-Travel Behaviors of Africans Americans, (c) Perceptions of Racial Discrimination During Leisure Travel, (d) Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Leisure-Travel Behaviors, (e) Relationships Between Leisure-Travel Behaviors and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage, (f) Relationships Between Perceived Racial Discrimination and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage, (g) Relationships Between the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage, and (h) Relationships Between Social Class, Gender, Life Stage, and Perceptions of Racial Discrimination on the Leisure-Travel Behaviors of African Americans.

Descriptive Statistics

Survey Response

A total of 800 questionnaires were mailed to African Americans who had attended the University of Florida. Of the 800 questionnaires initially mailed, 176 questionnaires were returned, although 23 were ineligible because of incorrect addresses, 5 were

ineligible because the respondents were not African American, and 17 were ineligible because of incomplete responses. The 28 respondents who had incorrect addresses and were not African American decreased the sample size from 800 to 772. Out of 772, a total of 131 eligible questionnaires were included in the study and the response rate was 17 percent. It should be noted that previous studies using mail surveys with African Americans groups have similarly experienced low response rates. The researcher was unable to determine the non-response bias of the total sample because the University of Florida Alumni Association denied the researcher access to the respondents' telephone numbers.

Sample Demographics

The following socio-structural variables were included in the study: social class, gender, and life stage. The social-class category included the items education and income. Almost half (44 percent) of the African Americans in the study had completed a masters degree and had some work on an Ed. D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D., 29 percent had a bachelors degree and some graduate work, and 25 percent had an Ed. D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D. Forty-seven percent of the respondents had a family income above \$85,000, 33 percent had a family income between \$55,000 to \$84,999, and 16 percent had family incomes below \$54,999. The respondents were all African American and 43.5 percent were male (N = 57) and 56.5 percent were female (N = 74). The life stages of the respondents ranged between 17 – 45 (Early Adulthood) (47 percent) and 46 - 65 (Middle Adulthood) (47 percent). Five respondents aged 66 and above were excluded from the study because the small group size prevented the researcher from making statistically

meaningful comparisons between two or more groups. The frequencies of the results are presented in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1. Distribution of African Americans' Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage.

Socio-structural Variables	N	Percent	Mean	Std. Dev.
Social Class				
Education			1.96	.74
(1) Lower Education	38	29.0		
(2) Middle Education	58	44.3		
(3) Higher Education	<u>33</u>	<u>25.2</u>		
Total	129	98.5		
Income			2.33	.75
(1) Lower Income	21	16.0		
(2) Middle Income	43	32.8		
(3) Higher Income	<u>62</u>	<u>47.3</u>		
Total	126	96.2		
Gender				
(1) Male	57	43.5		
(1) Female	<u>74</u>	<u>56.5</u>		
	131	100.0		
Life Stage				
(1) Early Adulthood	61	46.6		
(2) Middle Adulthood	<u>62</u>	<u>47.3</u>		
Total	123	93.9		

Education Scale 1 – 3 where 1 = Lower Education (bachelors degree and some graduate work), 2 = Middle Education (masters degree and some work on Ed.D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D.), and 3 = Higher Education (Ed.D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D.).

Income Scale 1 – 3 where 1 = Low Income (\$54,999 and below), 2 = Middle Income (\$55,000 to \$84,999), and 3 = High Income (\$85,000 and above).

Gender Scale where 1 = Male and 2 = Female.

Age Scale where 1 = aged 17 - 45 (Early Adulthood) and 2 = aged 46 – 65 (Middle Adulthood).

Leisure-Travel Behaviors

1. What are the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

Transportation

Automobiles (47 percent, mean = 2.80) and airplanes (48 percent, mean = 2.66) represent the most often used modes of transportation by African Americans during their leisure travel. While they most often drove their own vehicles during leisure travel, African Americans sometimes used rental cars (54 percent, mean = 2.32) as their primary mode of transportation. African Americans, in this study, almost never traveled by bus (70 percent, mean = 1.15) or city bus (62 percent, mean = 1.30) and rarely traveled by train (57 percent, mean = 1.30), bus tour (46 percent, mean = 1.50), or ship or boat (44 percent, mean = 1.47) during their leisure travel. The responses are shown in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2. Frequency and Mean Scores of Types of Transportation Used During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Types of Transportation	N	Percent of N	Never (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Car	124	94.70	2.30	29.80	47.30	15.30	2.80	.73
Airplane	120	91.60	6.10	28.20	48.10	9.20	2.66	.75
Rental Car	121	92.40	7.60	54.20	23.70	6.90	2.32	.73
Bus Tour	108	82.40	45.80	32.80	3.10	0.80	1.50	.62
Ship/Boat	104	79.40	43.50	34.40	1.50	0.00	1.47	.54
Train	107	81.70	57.30	24.40	0.00	0.00	1.30	.46
City Bus	109	83.20	61.80	19.10	1.50	0.80	1.30	.55
Bus	108	82.40	70.20	12.20	0.00	0.00	1.15	.36

Scale 1 - 4 where 1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "often", and 4 = "always."

Accommodations

African Americans stayed in hotels or motels (63 percent, mean = 3.05) often and 21 percent always stayed in hotels and motels during their leisure travel. They sometimes spent the night in resorts (43.5 percent, mean = 2.11) and condos or timeshares (29 percent, 1.60). However, African Americans almost never spent the night

in bed and breakfasts (60 percent, mean = 1.30) and recreational vehicles or tents (78 percent, mean = 1.02) during their leisure travel. The responses are shown in Table 4-3.

Table 4-3. Frequency and Mean Scores of Types of Accommodations Used During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Types of Accommodations	N	Percent of N	Never (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Hotel/Motel	129	98.50	0.00	15.30	62.60	20.60	3.05	.60
Resort	112	85.50	17.60	43.50	22.10	2.30	2.11	.75
Condo/Time Share	109	83.20	43.50	29.00	9.20	1.50	1.60	.76
B & B	110	84.00	60.30	22.10	1.50	0.00	1.30	.50
RV/Tent	104	79.40	77.90	1.50	0.00	0.00	1.02	.14

Scale 1 - 4 where 1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "often", and 4 = "always."

Food-Service Facilities

During leisure travel, African Americans are more likely to dine at sit-down restaurants more often (73 percent, mean = 2.95) than any other type of food-service facility.

Table 4-4. Frequency and Mean Scores of Types of Food-Service Facilities Used During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Types of Food-Service Facilities	N	Percent of N	Never (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Sit-Down Restaurants	131	100.00	0.80	14.50	73.30	11.50	2.95	.54
Fast-Food Restaurants	123	93.90	1.50	57.30	31.30	3.80	2.40	.60
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	125	95.40	9.20	56.50	29.80	0.00	2.22	.60
Cafeterias	115	87.80	16.80	58.80	12.20	0.00	1.95	.58

Scale 1 - 4 where 1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "often", and 4 = "always."

They sometimes dined at cafeterias (59 percent, 1.95), fast-food restaurants (57 percent, mean = 2.40), and hotel or motel restaurants (57 percent, mean = 2.22). The responses are shown in Table 4-4.

Activities

Shopping (95 percent, mean = 2.91) during the leisure travel of African Americans registered the highest rate of participation among the 19 activities presented in table 4-5.

Table 4-5. Frequency and Mean Scores of Participation in Types of Activities Used During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Participation in Types of Activities	N	Percent of N	Never (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Shopping	126	96.20	0.80	29.00	44.30	22.10	2.91	.75
Beaches	121	92.40	6.10	56.50	26.70	3.10	2.29	.64
Amusement Parks	122	93.10	9.20	55.00	23.70	5.30	2.27	.72
Museum/Historic Places	118	90.10	8.40	55.00	23.70	3.10	2.24	.66
Performing Arts	120	91.60	11.50	57.30	22.10	0.80	2.13	.62
Religious Events	117	89.30	19.80	42.70	22.90	3.80	2.12	.80
Sport Events	119	90.80	26.00	38.90	19.80	6.10	2.07	.88
Festivals - Mostly Black	118	90.10	14.50	58.00	16.00	1.50	2.05	.64
Festivals - Mostly White	120	91.60	25.20	54.20	9.20	3.10	1.89	.71
National/State Park	117	89.30	23.70	52.70	12.20	0.80	1.89	.65
Nightlife/Dancing	116	88.50	25.20	52.70	9.20	1.50	1.85	.66
Group Tours - Mostly White	117	89.30	39.70	38.90	8.40	2.30	1.70	.75
Group Tours - Mostly Black	114	87.00	45.80	37.40	3.80	0.00	1.52	.58
Tennis/Golf	114	87.00	58.00	19.80	8.40	0.80	1.45	.71
Water Sports	113	86.30	57.30	21.40	7.60	0.00	1.43	.65
Fishing	116	88.50	60.30	21.40	5.30	1.50	1.41	.69
Skiing	112	85.50	71.00	7.60	4.60	2.30	1.28	.69
Camping	111	84.70	72.50	12.20	0.00	0.00	1.14	.35
Hunting	113	86.30	81.70	3.10	0.80	0.80	1.08	.38

Scale 1 - 4 where 1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "often", and 4 = "always."

African Americans sometimes attended mostly black festivals (58 percent, mean = 2.05) and performing arts (57 percent, mean = 2.13), went to the beach (57 percent, mean = 2.29), amusement parks (55 percent, mean = 2.27), museums and historic places (55

percent, mean = 2.24), attended mostly white festivals (54 percent, mean = 1.89), went to national and state parks (53 percent, mean = 1.89), participated in dancing or nightlife (53 percent, mean = 1.85), and attended religious (43 percent, mean = 2.12) and sporting events (39 percent, mean = 2.07). On the contrary, African Americans almost never participated in hunting (82 percent, mean = 1.08), camping (73 percent, mean = 1.14), and skiing (71 percent, mean = 1.28) during their leisure travel.

Perceived Racial Discrimination During Leisure Travel

2. What are African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination in their use of types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities during their leisure travel?

Perceived Racial Discrimination and Transportation

Table 4-2 showed that African Americans are more likely to use automobiles, airplanes, and rental cars as their primary modes of transportation during leisure travel.

Approximately 30 percent of the African Americans who used these modes of transportation perceived some form of racial discrimination (Table 4-6). However, almost 50 percent of the African Americans who used these modes of transportation almost never perceived racial discrimination. The highest transportation mean score related to perceptions of racial discrimination during leisure travel was the use of a bus (1.60).

Table 4-6. Frequency and Mean Scores of Perceptions of Racial Discrimination Using Types of Transportation During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Types of Transportation	N	Percent of N	Never (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Bus	15	11.50	6.10	4.60	0.00	0.80	1.60	.83
Rental Car	109	83.20	47.30	31.30	3.10	1.50	1.50	.66
Airplane	109	83.20	48.10	32.10	3.10	0.00	1.46	.57
City Bus	25	19.10	13.70	3.80	0.80	0.80	1.40	.76
Car	113	86.30	53.40	32.10	0.80	0.00	1.39	.51
Ship/Boat	46	35.10	25.20	9.20	0.80	0.00	1.30	.51
Bus Tour	45	34.40	25.20	9.20	0.00	0.00	1.27	.45
Train	30	22.90	20.60	2.30	0.00	0.00	1.10	.31

Scale 1 - 4 where 1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "often", and 4 = "always."

Perceived Racial Discrimination and Accommodations

Hotels or motels by far were the most common type of accommodation where African Americans had sometimes perceived racial discrimination (66 percent, mean = 1.75) during their leisure travel. The next most common type of accommodation where African Americans had sometimes perceived racial discrimination was staying in resorts (31 percent, mean = 1.50) followed by condos or timeshares (14 percent, mean = 1.44). The responses are shown in Table 4-7.

Table 4-7. Frequency and Mean Scores of Perceptions of Racial Discrimination Using Types of Accommodations During African Americans' Leisure Travel.

Types of Accommodations	N	Percent of N	Never (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Hotel/Motel	127	96.90	27.50	66.40	3.10	0.00	1.75	.50
Resort	88	67.20	35.10	30.50	1.50	0.00	1.50	.55
Condo/Time Share	50	38.20	22.90	13.70	1.50	0.00	1.44	.58
B & B	30	22.90	16.00	6.10	0.80	0.00	1.33	.55
RV/Tent	2	1.50	1.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	.00

Scale 1 - 4 where 1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "often", and 4 = "always."

Perceived Racial Discrimination and Food-Service Facilities

In all types of food-service facilities, African Americans had sometimes perceived racial discrimination during their leisure travel. The most common site where African Americans sometimes perceived racial discrimination was dining at sit-down restaurants (70 percent, mean = 1.84), followed by hotel or motel restaurants (49 percent, mean = 1.64), fast-food restaurants (44 percent, mean = 1.52), and cafeterias (30 percent, mean = 1.48). The responses are shown in Table 4-8.

Table 4-8. Frequency and Mean Scores of Perceptions of Racial Discrimination Using Types of Food-Service Facilities During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Types of Food-Service Facilities	N	Percent of N	Never (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Sit Down Restaurants	130	99.20	22.90	69.50	6.90	0.00	1.84	.53
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	112	85.50	34.40	48.90	1.50	0.00	1.64	.57
Fast Food Restaurants	119	90.80	45.00	44.30	1.50	0.00	1.52	.53
Cafeterias	93	71.00	38.90	29.80	2.30	0.00	1.48	.57

Scale 1 - 4 where 1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "often", and 4 = "always."

Perceived Racial Discrimination and Activities

Table 4-5 in the preceding section illustrates the participation levels of African Americans in activities during their leisure travel. The results indicated that African Americans participated the most in shopping, black and white festivals, performing arts, beaches, amusement parks, museums or historic places, national or state parks, dancing or nightlife, and religious and sporting events. Table 4-9 represents their perceptions of racial discrimination while participating in the above activities and presents other activities where African Americans perceived racial discrimination. For those activities

that African Americans tended to participate in most, they tended to have similarly higher rates of perceived racial discrimination while participating in these activities. Shopping (58 percent, mean = 1.94) was the most common venue where African Americans sometimes perceived racial discrimination. Likewise, African Americans sometimes perceived racial discrimination going to the beach (31 percent, mean = 1.42), amusement parks (30 percent, mean = 1.44), and dancing/nightlife (28 percent, mean = 1.50), attending mostly white festivals (28 percent, mean = 1.52), and sports events (25 percent, mean = 1.50). Other activities where African Americans sometimes perceived racial discrimination was attending performing arts (22 percent, mean = 1.30), going to museums or historic places (20 percent, mean = 1.26), national or state parks (17 percent, mean = 1.26), and religious events (16 percent, mean = 1.33).

Table 4-9. Frequency and Mean Scores of Perceptions of Racial Discrimination in Types of Activities Participated in During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Participation in Types of Activities	N	Percent of N	Never (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Shopping	124	94.70	22.90	58.00	9.90	3.80	1.94	.71
Group Tours - Mostly White	64	48.90	23.70	24.40	0.80	0.00	1.55	.59
Festivals - Mostly White	88	67.20	35.90	28.20	2.30	0.80	1.52	.63
Sport Events	84	64.10	35.90	25.20	2.30	0.80	1.50	.63
Skiing	18	13.70	7.60	5.30	0.80	0.00	1.50	.62
Nightlife/Dancing	82	62.60	32.80	28.20	1.50	0.00	1.50	.55
Tennis/Golf	37	28.20	14.50	13.70	0.00	0.00	1.49	.51
Amusement Parks	108	82.40	49.60	29.80	3.10	0.00	1.44	.57
Beaches	112	85.50	51.90	31.30	2.30	0.00	1.42	.55
Water Sports	37	28.20	17.60	10.70	0.00	0.00	1.38	.49
Religious Events	88	67.20	48.90	16.00	0.80	0.00	1.33	.62
Performing Arts	105	80.20	57.30	22.10	0.00	0.80	1.30	.52
Fishing	35	26.70	19.10	7.60	0.00	0.00	1.29	.46
Museum/Historic Places	106	80.90	60.30	19.80	0.80	0.00	1.26	.46
National/State Park	86	65.60	48.90	16.80	0.00	0.00	1.26	.44
Group Tours - Mostly Black	52	39.70	29.80	9.90	0.00	0.00	1.25	.44
Hunting	5	3.80	3.10	0.80	0.00	0.00	1.20	.45
Camping	16	12.20	9.90	2.30	0.00	0.00	1.19	.40
Festivals - Mostly Black	99	75.60	65.60	9.90	0.00	0.00	1.13	.34

Scale 1 - 4 where 1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "often", and 4 = "always."

While African Americans had high participation rates at mostly black festivals (60 percent), they rarely perceived racial discrimination (10 percent, mean = 1.13) participating at these festivals. Likewise, African Americans almost never perceived racial discrimination participating in camping and hunting; however, they almost never participated in these activities during their leisure travel. The results suggest that African Americans perceived some level of racial discrimination in all of the 19 activities presented in this study.

Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Leisure-Travel Behaviors

3. Do perceptions of racial discrimination influence the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Transportation Behaviors

Overall, African Americans who had perceived racial discrimination during their use of modes of transportation rarely decreased and almost never increased their use of modes of transportation. In fact, the majority of African Americans reported no change in their use of modes of transportation because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination. The largest decrease in African Americans' use of modes of transportation was in their use of rental cars (10 percent, mean = 1.75). Refer to Table 4-10 for the results.

Table 4-10. Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on the Use of Types of Transportation During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Types of Transportation	N	Percent of N	Decrease In Use (%)	No Change (%)	Increase In Use (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Train	5	3.80	0.00	3.80	0.00	2.00	.00
Car	41	31.30	0.80	30.50	0.00	2.00	.16
Airplane	45	34.40	3.10	31.30	0.00	1.90	.29
Ship/Boat	13	9.90	1.50	8.40	0.00	1.85	.38
Rental Car	48	36.60	9.90	26.00	0.80	1.75	.48
Bus Tour	13	9.90	3.10	6.90	0.00	1.69	.48
Bus	7	5.30	2.30	3.10	0.00	1.57	.54
City Bus	7	5.30	2.30	3.10	0.00	1.57	.54

Scale 1 – 3 where 1 = “decrease in use”, 2 = “no change”, and 3 = “increase in use.”

Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Accommodation Behaviors

Comparable to the results found in Table 4-10, African Americans rarely decreased and almost never increased their use of accommodations because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination.

Table 4-11. Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on the Use of Types of Accommodations During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Types of Accommodations	N	Percent of N	Decrease In Use (%)	No Change (%)	Increase In Use (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
RV/Tent	1	0.80	0.00	0.80	0.00	2.00	.00
Condo/Time Share	21	16.00	2.30	13.70	0.00	1.86	.36
Hotel/Motel	88	67.20	13.00	52.70	1.50	1.83	.43
Resort	42	32.10	6.90	25.20	0.00	1.79	.42
Bed & Breakfast	9	6.90	3.10	3.80	0.00	1.56	.53

Scale 1 – 3 where 1 = “decrease in use”, 2 = “no change”, and 3 = “increase in use.”

As a result, the influence of perceived racial discrimination usually resulted in no change in African Americans’ use of accommodations. The largest decrease in African Americans’ use of accommodations was reported in their use of hotels or motels (13

percent, mean = 1.86) followed by a decrease in their use of resorts (7 percent, mean = 1.79). The responses are shown in Table 4-11.

Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Food-Service-Facility Behaviors

In contrast to the findings in tables 4-10 and 4-11, the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' use of food-service facilities was more widespread. Overall, the influence of perceived racial discrimination decreased African Americans' use of sit down restaurants (16 percent, mean = 1.79), hotel or motel restaurants (12 percent, mean = 1.77), fast-food restaurants (11 percent, mean = 1.77), and cafeterias (9 percent, mean = 1.71). Even though the majority of African Americans reported that the influence of perceived racial discrimination had not changed their use of food-service facilities, it is interesting to find that African Americans consistently decreased their use of all types of food-service facilities because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination. Refer to Table 4-12 for the results.

Table 4-12. Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on the Use of Types of Food-Service Facilities During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Types of Food-Service Facilities	N	Percent of N	Decrease In Use (%)	No Change (%)	Increase In Use (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Sit Down Restaurants	100	76.30	16.00	60.30	0.00	1.79	.41
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	67	50.40	11.50	38.90	0.00	1.77	.42
Fast Food Restaurants	60	45.80	10.70	35.10	0.00	1.77	.43
Cafeterias	41	31.30	9.20	22.10	0.00	1.71	.46

Scale 1 – 3 where 1 = "decrease in use", 2 = "no change", and 3 = "increase in use."

Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Activity Behaviors

Although African Americans perceived racial discrimination in 19 out of the 19 activities presented in this study, the influence of perceived racial discrimination rarely

decreased and almost never increased their rates of participation. Refer to Table 4-13. However, six activities in particular yielded the highest decreases in participation rates among African Americans because of perceived racial discrimination: shopping (16 percent, mean = 1.80), mostly white festivals (11 percent, mean = 1.64), mostly white group tours (9 percent, mean = 1.64), nightlife or dancing (8 percent, mean = 1.73), beaches (6 percent, mean = 1.87), and amusement parks (6 percent, mean = 1.83).

Table 4-13. Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Participation in Types of Activities During the Leisure Travel of African Americans.

Participation In Types of Activities	N	Percent of N	Decrease In Use (%)	No Change (%)	Increase In Use (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.
Museum/Historic Places	26	19.80	2.30	15.30	2.30	2.00	.49
Group Tours- Mostly Black	13	9.90	1.50	7.60	0.80	1.92	.49
Festivals - Mostly Black	12	9.20	0.80	8.40	0.00	1.92	.29
National/State Park	24	18.30	2.30	15.30	0.80	1.92	.41
Fishing	9	6.90	0.80	6.90	0.00	1.89	.33
Tennis/Golf	17	13.00	1.50	11.50	0.00	1.88	.33
Beaches	45	34.40	6.10	26.70	1.50	1.87	.46
Sport Events	34	26.00	3.80	22.10	0.00	1.85	.36
Amusement Parks	42	32.10	6.10	25.20	0.80	1.83	.44
Shopping	92	70.20	16.00	51.90	2.30	1.80	.47
Performing Arts	30	22.90	5.30	16.80	0.80	1.80	.48
Water Sports	14	10.70	2.30	8.40	0.00	1.79	.43
Religious Events	26	19.80	4.60	15.30	0.00	1.77	.43
Nightlife/Dancing	37	28.20	7.60	20.60	0.00	1.73	.45
Camping	3	2.30	0.80	1.50	0.00	1.67	.58
Festivals - Mostly White	39	29.80	10.70	19.10	0.00	1.64	.49
Group Tours- Mostly White	33	25.20	9.20	16.00	0.00	1.64	.49
Hunting	1	0.80	0.80	0.00	0.00	1.00	.00
Skiing	0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	.00

Scale 1 – 3 where 1 = “decrease in use”, 2 = “no change”, and 3 = “increase in use.”

Note: The scale for the influence of perceived racial discrimination on participation in skiing was not included in the questionnaire.

Specific to mostly white festivals and group tours, about 33 percent of African Americans who participated in these activities had decreased their participation in these activities because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination. The influence of perceived

racial discrimination predominated among the activities where African Americans participated the most.

Relationship Between Leisure-Travel Behaviors and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

4. What is the relationship between social class, gender, life stage and the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

Transportation by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

Using one-way ANOVAs and t-tests, the relationships between modes of transportation and social class (i.e., education and income), gender, and life stage were examined. The relationships between modes of transportation based on education, gender, and life stage are not significant and are illustrated in Tables 4-14, 4-17, and 4-18.

Table 4-14. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Use of Transportation by Education.

Type of Transportation	F Value	F Probability
Car	0.97	.383
Airplane	2.02	.137
Rental Car	1.30	.275
Bus Tour	1.23	.297
Ship/Boat	1.28	.284
Train	1.28	.283
City Bus	0.55	.582
Bus	1.35	.265

Table 4-15 shows almost no significant relationships between modes of transportation and income except for a significant relationship between use of airplane and income (F -value = 6.06, α = .01, p = .003). The Scheffé post-hoc test illustrates a significant

difference between the use of airplanes by lower income ($n = 19$, mean = 2.21) and higher income ($n = 58$, mean = 2.84) African Americans. Higher-income African Americans flew slightly more often during their leisure travel than did lower-income African Americans.

Table 4-15. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Use of Transportation by Income.

Type of Transportation	F Value	F Probability
Car	0.95	.388
Airplane	6.06	.003***
Rental Car	1.05	.354
Bus Tour	0.81	.446
Ship/Boat	0.89	.415
Train	0.08	.924
City Bus	0.52	.598
Bus	1.64	.200

*** significant at .01 level

Table 4-16 Post Hoc test for Airplane by Income

Type of Transportation	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Airplane		
Lower Income ($n = 19$)	2.21 ^a	.1987
Middle Income ($n = 38$)	2.58 ^{a, b}	.1476
Higher Income ($n = 58$)	2.84 ^b	.1870

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences.

Note: Items that comprise each factor were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Table 4-17. T-Test for African Americans' Use of Transportation by Gender.

Type of Transportation	T Value	T Probability
Car	0.27	.789
Airplane	-0.71	.481
Rental Car	0.06	.952
Bus Tour	-0.78	.436
Ship/Boat	0.31	.756
Train	0.82	.413
City Bus	-0.38	.703
Bus	-0.60	.549

Table 4-18. T-test for African Americans' Use of Transportation by Life Stage.

Type of Transportation	T Value	T Probability
Car	-0.95	.344
Airplane	0.78	.438
Rental Car	-0.04	.967
Bus Tour	0.17	.864
Ship/Boat	1.04	.302
Train	-0.22	.826
City Bus	0.96	.339
Bus	0.59	.560

Overall, the influence of education, income, gender, and life stage are not significant on African Americans use of transportation, although income seems to have some influence on African Americans use of airplanes during their leisure travel.

Accommodations by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

No significant difference was found between African Americans' use of accommodations by education, gender, and life stage. The responses are shown in tables 4-19, 4-22, and 4-23.

Table 4-19. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Use of Accommodations by Education.

Type of Accommodation	F Value	F Probability
Hotel/Motel	0.82	.445
Resort	0.79	.456
Condo/Time Share	1.40	.252
B & B	0.31	.733
RV/Tent	2.76	.068

From the ANOVA table 4-20, a significant difference was found among African Americans' use of resorts (F-value = 6.67, $\alpha = .01$, p-value = .002) and condos or timeshares (F-value = .3.62, $\alpha = .05$, p-value = .030) based on income. The Scheffé

post-hoc test shows that higher-income African Americans used resorts ($n = 55$, mean = 2.29) more often than lower income African Americans ($n = 15$, mean = 1.53). Likewise, higher income African Americans ($n = 53$, mean = 1.79) used condos or timeshares more often than lower-income African Americans ($n = 14$, mean = 1.21). Thus, income was useful in determining African Americans' use of resorts and condos or timeshares.

Table 4-20. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Use of Accommodations by Income.

Type of Accommodation	F Value	F Probability
Hotel/Motel	1.16	.319
Resort	6.67	.002**
Condo/Time Share	3.62	.030**
B & B	2.08	.131
RV/Tent	0.20	.821

** significant at .05 level *** significant at .01 level

Table 4-21 Post Hoc for Resort and Condo/Time Share by Income

Type of Food-Service Facility	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Resort		
Lower Income ($n = 15$)	1.53 ^a	.2188
Middle Income ($n = 39$)	2.05 ^{a, b}	.1508
Higher Income ($n = 55$)	2.29 ^b	.2098
Condo/Time Share		
Lower Income ($n = 14$)	1.21 ^a	.2311
Middle Income ($n = 39$)	1.56 ^{a, b}	.1565
Higher Income ($n = 53$)	1.79 ^b	.2229

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences.

Note: Items that comprise each factor were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Table 4-22. T-Test for African Americans' Use of Accommodations by Gender.

Type of Accommodation	T Value	T Probability
Hotel/Motel	-1.78	.077
Resort	1.93	.057
Condo/Time Share	-0.08	.935
B & B	-1.16	.251
RV/Tent	1.58	.118

Table 4-23. T-test for African Americans' Use of Accommodations by Life Stage.

Type of Accommodation	T Value	T Probability
Hotel/Motel	-0.16	.873
Resort	-0.09	.930
Condo/Time Share	-1.41	.163
B & B	-1.60	.114
RV/Tent	-0.13	.898

Food-Service Facilities by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

T-test table 4-28 illustrates no significant difference between African Americans' uses of food-service facilities by gender. However, ANOVA tables 4-24 and 4-26 and the t-test table 4-29 show a significant difference between African Americans' use of hotel or motel restaurants by education ($F\text{-value} = 7.64$, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .001$), income ($F\text{-value} = 4.04$, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .020$), and life stage ($T\text{-value} = -2.07$, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .04$). The Scheffé post-hoc test (Table 4-25) illustrates a significant difference between African Americans who had lower ($n = 38$, mean = 2.11) and higher ($n = 32$, mean = 2.56) levels of education and those with middle ($n = 53$, mean = 2.09) and higher ($n = 32$, mean = 2.56) levels of education in their use of hotel or motel restaurants. Thus, African Americans with higher levels of education are more likely to dine at hotel or motel restaurants during their leisure travel compared to African Americans with lower and middle levels of education. Similarly, post-hoc analysis in table 4-27 shows a significant difference between African Americans with lower and higher incomes in their use of hotel or motel restaurants. African Americans with higher incomes ($n = 58$, mean = 2.33) are more likely to dine at hotel or motel restaurants during their leisure travel compared to lower income African Americans ($n = 20$, mean = 1.90). Table 4 – 30 demonstrates a difference in the mean scores for African Americans' use of hotel or motel restaurants by

life stage. The mean score for African Americans in early adulthood and their use of hotel or motel restaurants was 2.08, whereas the middle adulthood mean score was 2.31. African Americans in middle adulthood are more likely to use hotel or motel restaurants than African Americans in early adulthood. The variables education, income, and life stage were useful in determining African Americans' use of hotel or motel restaurants while traveling for leisure.

Table 4-24. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Education.

Type of Food-Service Facility	F Value	F Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	0.69	.503
Fast-Food Restaurants	0.82	.441
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	7.64	.001***
Cafeterias	0.003	.997

*** significant at .001 level

Table 4-25. Post Hoc for Hotel/Motel Restaurants by Education

Type of Food-Service Facility	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Hotel/Motel Restaurants		
Lower Education (n = 38)	2.11 ^a	.1227
Middle Education (n = 53)	2.09 ^a	.1292
Higher Education (n = 32)	2.56 ^b	.1385

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences. Note: Items that comprise each factor were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Table 4-26. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Income.

Type of Food-Service Facility	F Value	F Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	0.27	.766
Fast-Food Restaurants	0.54	.585
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	4.04	.020**
Cafeterias	1.88	.157

** significant at .05 level

Table 4-27. Post Hoc for Hotel/Motel Restaurants by Income

Type of Food-Service Facility	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Hotel/Motel Restaurants		
Lower Income (n = 20)	1.90 ^a	.1597
Middle Income (n = 42)	2.17 ^{a,b}	.1191
Higher Income (n = 58)	2.33 ^b	.1524

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences.

Note: Items that comprise each factor were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Table 4-28. T-Test for African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Gender.

Type of Food-Service Facility	T Value	T Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	-0.78	.437
Fast-Food Restaurants	-0.28	.783
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	0.33	.740
Cafeterias	-1.76	.081

Table 4-29. T-test for African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Life Stage.

Type of Food-Service Facility	T Value	T Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	-0.34	.731
Fast-Food Restaurants	0.55	.581
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	-2.07	.040**
Cafeterias	-0.63	.531

**significant at .05 level.

Table 4-30. Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Life Stage.

Type of Food-Service Facility	Early Adulthood			Middle Adulthood		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	60	2.08	.591	58	2.31	.598

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Scale 1 to 2 where 1 = aged 17 - 45 (Early Adulthood) and 2 = aged 46 - 65 (Middle Adulthood).

Activities by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

The results in table 4-31 illustrates a significant difference among African Americans participation in mostly black festivals (F-value = 3.96, alpha = .05, p = .022), tennis or golf (F-value = 12.61, alpha = .01, p = .000), water sports (F-value = 3.5, alpha = .01, p = .034), and skiing (F-value = 5.60, alpha = .01, p = .005) by education.

Table 4-31. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Participation in Activities by Education.

Type of Activity	F Value	F Probability
Shopping	0.62	.535
Beaches	0.19	.828
Amusement Parks	1.53	.221
Museum/Historic Places	2.16	.120
Performing Arts	2.92	.058
Religious Events	1.56	.214
Sport Events	0.41	.664
Festivals - Mostly Black	3.96	.022**
Festivals - Mostly White	2.36	.099
National/State Park	0.70	.500
Nightlife/Dancing	1.64	.198
Group Tours - Mostly White	0.78	.463
Group Tours - Mostly Black	0.96	.386
Tennis/Golf	12.61	<.001***
Water Sports	3.50	.034**
Fishing	0.95	.391
Skiing	5.60	.005***
Camping	0.68	.511
Hunting	2.01	.139

** significant at .05 level.

*** significant at .01 level.

**** significant at .001 level.

The Scheffé post-hoc test was used to determine the differences among these activities by level of education (Table 4-32). There was a significant difference between participation at mostly black festivals among African Americans with middle (n = 51, mean = 2.22) and lower (n = 35, mean = 1.83) levels of education. Thus, African Americans with

middle levels of education had higher participation rates at mostly black festivals than did African Americans with lower levels of education. Two significant differences were found in African Americans participation in tennis or golf where African Americans with lower levels of education ($n = 34$, mean = 1.50) participated more often compared to African Americans with middle levels of education ($n = 47$, mean = 1.13) and African Americans with higher levels of education ($n = 51$, mean = 1.87) participated in tennis or golf more often than African Americans with middle levels of education ($n = 47$, mean = 1.13). Thus, African Americans with lower and higher levels of education are more likely to have higher participation rates in tennis or golf compared to African Americans with middle levels of education.

Table 4-32. Post Hoc for Festivals – Mostly Black, Tennis/Golf, Water Sports, and Skiing by Education.

Type of Activity	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Festivals – Mostly Black		
Lower Education ($n = 35$)	1.83 ^a	.1378
Middle Education ($n = 51$)	2.22 ^b	.1445
Higher Education ($n = 30$)	2.03 ^{a,b}	.1563
Tennis/Golf		
Lower Education ($n = 34$)	1.50 ^a	.1450
Middle Education ($n = 47$)	1.13 ^b	.1490
Higher Education ($n = 51$)	1.87 ^a	.1599
Water Sports		
Lower Education ($n = 33$)	1.27 ^a	.1446
Middle Education ($n = 48$)	1.38 ^{a,b}	.1473
Higher Education ($n = 31$)	1.68 ^b	.1599
Skiing		
Lower Education ($n = 33$)	1.15 ^a	.1468
Middle Education ($n = 47$)	1.13 ^a	.1510
Higher Education ($n = 30$)	1.60 ^b	.1630

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences.

Note: Items that comprise each factor were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = “never” to 4 = “always.”

Specific to water sports, African Americans with higher levels of education ($n = 31$, mean = 1.68) had higher participation rates than did African Americans with lower levels of education ($n = 33$, mean = 1.27). Finally, a significant difference was found between participation in skiing and African Americans with lower ($n = 33$, mean = 1.15) and higher levels of education ($n = 30$, mean = 1.60) and African Americans with middle ($n = 47$, mean = 1.13) and higher levels of education ($n = 30$, mean = 1.60). African Americans with higher levels of education are more likely to participate in skiing than African Americans with lower and middle levels of education.

From the ANOVA Table 4-33, there was a significant difference in several of the activities participated in by African Americans during their leisure travel based on income. There was a significant difference between income and participation rates at museums or historic places (F -value, 6.06, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .003$), mostly white festivals (F -value, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .030$), tennis or golf (F -value = 8.21, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .000$), and water sports (F -value = 3.14, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .047$). The Scheffé post-hoc test (Table 4-34) was used to determine the differences among these activities by level of income. A significant difference was found between the mean scores of African Americans with middle income ($n = 37$, mean = 1.97) and higher incomes ($n = 57$, mean = 2.42) related to the activity of visiting museums or historic places. African Americans with higher incomes had higher participation rates at museums or historic places than did middle income African Americans. Likewise, a significant difference was found between the participation rates of African Americans at mostly white festivals where higher income African Americans ($n = 59$, mean 2.03) had higher mean scores than did middle income African Americans ($n = 38$, mean = 1.66). Accordingly, African Americans with higher

incomes are more likely to participate in mostly white festivals than are middle income African Americans.

Table 4-33. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Participation in Activities by Income.

Type of Activity	F Value	F Probability
Shopping	0.01	.986
Beaches	2.06	.132
Amusement Parks	0.56	.574
Museum/Historic Places	6.06	.003***
Performing Arts	1.71	.184
Religious Events	0.21	.809
Sport Events	1.27	.286
Festivals - Mostly Black	1.47	.236
Festivals - Mostly White	3.60	.030**
National/State Park	0.38	.684
Nightlife/Dancing	0.96	.387
Group Tours - Mostly White	0.13	.882
Group Tours - Mostly Black	1.47	.235
Tennis/Golf	8.21	<.001****
Water Sports	3.14	.047**
Fishing	0.42	.660
Skiing	1.67	.194
Camping	0.92	.401
Hunting	0.23	.796

** significant at .05 level.

*** significant at .01 level.

**** significant at .001 level.

Specific to the activity of tennis or golf, two significant differences were found among the mean scores of African Americans with lower ($n = 17$, mean = 1.12) and higher incomes ($n = 57$, mean = 1.70) and middle ($n = 36$, mean = 1.22) and higher incomes ($n = 57$, mean = 1.70). African Americans with higher incomes are more likely to participate in tennis or golf compared to lower and middle income African Americans. Finally, a significant difference was found between African Americans' participation in water sports among lower income ($n = 18$, mean = 1.11) and higher income African Americans

(n = 37, mean = 1.54). Higher income African Americans are more likely to participate in water sports than lower income African Americans.

Table 4-34. Post Hoc for Museums/Historical Places, Festivals – Mostly White, Tennis/Golf, and Water Sports by Income.

Type of Activity	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Museums/Historical Places		
Lower Income (n = 18)	2.17 ^{a,b}	.1770
Middle Income (n = 37)	1.97 ^a	.1301
Higher Income (n = 57)	2.42 ^b	.1666
Festivals – Mostly White		
Lower Income (n = 19)	2.00 ^{a,b}	.1951
Middle Income (n = 38)	1.66 ^a	.1444
Higher Income (n = 59)	2.03 ^b	.1832
Tennis/Golf		
Lower Income (n = 17)	1.12 ^a	.1969
Middle Income (n = 36)	1.22 ^a	.1425
Higher Income (n = 57)	1.70 ^b	.1849
Water Sports		
Lower Income (n = 18)	1.11 ^a	.1867
Middle Income (n = 35)	1.40 ^{a,b}	.1382
Higher Income (n = 57)	1.54 ^b	.1740

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences.

Note: Items that comprise each factor were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = “never” to 4 = “always.”

The t-test table 4-35 illustrates several significant differences among African Americans’ participation in shopping (T-value = -3.26, alpha = .01, p = .001), religious events (T-value = -2.86, alpha = .01, p = .005), nightlife or dancing (T-value = 2.20, alpha = .05, p = .030), and fishing (T-value = 3.43, alpha = .01, p = .001) by gender. The mean shopping scores for females was 3.10, whereas the mean male score was 2.68. Females are more likely to shop during leisure travel compared to males. The female mean score for religious events was 2.30, whereas the mean male score was 1.88. Females are more likely to attend religious events during leisure travel compared to males. The mean dancing or nightlife score for males was 2.00, whereas the mean female

score was 1.73. Men are more likely to participate in dancing or nightlife during leisure travel than women. The mean fishing score for males was 1.64, whereas the mean female score was 1.22. Males are more likely to fish during leisure travel than females. The significant relationships between the mean scores of participation in activities by gender are shown in Table 4-36. The results suggest that gender is useful in predicting the participation rates of males and females in the activities of shopping, attending religious events, dancing or nightlife, and fishing.

Table 4-35. T-Test for African Americans' Participation in Activities by Gender.

Type of Activity	T Value	T Probability
Shopping	-3.26	.001****
Beaches	0.97	.335
Amusement Parks	-1.17	.243
Museum/Historic Places	1.68	.097
Performing Arts	-0.35	.724
Religious Events	-2.86	.005***
Sport Events	-0.15	.885
Festivals - Mostly Black	-0.22	.830
Festivals - Mostly White	1.26	.210
National/State Park	0.57	.573
Nightlife/Dancing	2.20	.030**
Group Tours - Mostly White	1.21	.228
Group Tours - Mostly Black	0.03	.978
Tennis/Golf	1.82	.072
Water Sports	1.78	.079
Fishing	3.43	.001****
Skiing	1.92	.057
Camping	0.97	.335
Hunting	0.46	.644

** significant at .05 level.

*** significant at .01 level.

**** significant at .001 level.

Table 4-36 Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between African Americans' Uses of Food-Service Facilities by Gender.

Type of Activity	Male			Female		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Shopping	56	2.68	.690	70	3.10	.745
Religious Events	52	1.88	.732	63	2.30	.816
Dancing and Nightlife	52	2.00	.657	63	1.73	.653
Fishing	53	1.64	.834	63	1.22	.456

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

The results of t-test table 4-37 show a significant difference between African Americans' participation at amusement parks (T-value = 2.89, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .005$), museums or historic places (T-value = -3.13, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .002$) and attendance at mostly white (T-value = -2.31, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .023$) and mostly black festivals (T-value = -2.71, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .008$) by life stage. The mean amusement park score for African Americans in early adulthood was 2.48, whereas the mean middle adulthood score was 2.11. African Americans in early adulthood have a significantly higher attendance rate at amusement parks than African Americans in middle adulthood. The mean museum or historic place score for African Americans in early adulthood was 2.07, whereas the mean middle adulthood score was 2.44. Thus, African Americans in middle adulthood are more likely to attend museums than African Americans in early adulthood. The mean festivals (mostly black) score for African Americans in early adulthood was 1.95, whereas the mean middle adulthood score was 2.22. African Americans in middle adulthood have a significantly higher attendance rate at black festivals than African Americans in early adulthood. The mean festivals (mostly white) score for African Americans in early adulthood was 1.74, whereas the mean middle adulthood score was 2.09. African Americans in middle adulthood have a significantly higher attendance rate

at white festivals than African Americans in early adulthood. Hence, African Americans in middle adulthood are more likely to attend black or white festivals than African Americans in early adulthood. The post-hoc results are shown in table 4-38.

Table 4-37. T-test for African Americans' Participation in Activities by Life Stage.

Type of Activity	T Value	T Probability
Shopping	-0.63	.530
Beaches	0.48	.631
Amusement Parks	2.89	.005***
Museum/Historic Places	-3.13	.002***
Performing Arts	-1.51	.135
Religious Events	0.67	.504
Sport Events	-0.32	.752
Festivals - Mostly Black	-2.31	.023**
Festivals - Mostly White	-2.71	.008***
National/State Park	-0.53	.595
Nightlife/Dancing	-0.80	.423
Group Tours - Mostly White	-0.44	.662
Group Tours - Mostly Black	0.23	.819
Tennis/Golf	-0.92	.361
Water Sports	-0.27	.786
Fishing	0.32	.747
Skiing	-0.37	.709
Camping	0.55	.580
Hunting	-1.11	.269

** significant at .05 level.

*** significant at .01 level.

Table 4-38 Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between African Americans' Participation in Activities by Life Stage.

Type of Activity	Early Adulthood			Middle Adulthood		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Amusement Parks	60	2.48	.651	55	2.11	.737
Museum/Historic Places	56	2.07	.568	55	2.44	.660
Festivals - Mostly Black	57	1.95	.639	55	2.22	.599
Festivals - Mostly White	57	1.74	.583	57	2.09	.786

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Relationships Between Perceived Racial Discrimination During Leisure Travel and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

5. What is the relationship between social class, gender, life stage and African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination in their use of types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities during their leisure travel?

Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Transportation by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

The relationships between African Americans' perceived racial discrimination using modes of transportation during leisure travel were not significant based on education and income. The responses are illustrated in Tables 4-39 and 4-40.

Table 4-39. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Transportation by Education.

Type of Transportation	F Value	F Probability
Car	1.12	.300
Airplane	0.47	.625
Rental Car	0.97	.385
Bus Tour	1.16	.324
Ship/Boat	2.52	.092
Train	0.93	.405
City Bus	0.68	.519
Bus	0.45	.652

A significant difference was found among African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination using modes of transportation by gender (Table 4-41). There was a significant difference between gender and perceived racial discrimination using rental cars (T-value = -2.63, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .010$) and bus tours (T-value = -3.71, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .001$). The female mean score for perceived racial discrimination and the use of rental

cars was 1.64, whereas the male mean score was 1.31 (Table 4-42). Females are more likely to perceive racial discrimination while using a rental car during their leisure travel than males. The female mean score for perceived racial discrimination and use of a bus tour during leisure travel was 1.44, whereas the male means score was 1 (Table 4-42). Females are more likely to perceive racial discrimination while taking a bus tour than males.

Table 4-40. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Transportation by Income.

Type of Transportation	F Value	F Probability
Car	0.29	.753
Airplane	1.09	.341
Rental Car	0.42	.658
Bus Tour	0.76	.476
Ship/Boat	2.32	.111
Train	0.33	.719
City Bus	1.63	.219
Bus	2.64	.112

Table 4-41. T-Test for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Transportation by Gender.

Type of Transportation	T Value	T Probability
Car	-0.31	.751
Airplane	-1.21	.229
Rental Car	-2.63	.010***
Bus Tour	-3.71	.001****
Ship/Boat	-0.05	.960
Train	-1.87	.072
City Bus	-1.51	.146
Bus	-1.02	.326

*** significant at .01 level.

**** significant at .01 level.

Table 4-42. Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Transportation by Gender.

Type of Transportation	Male			Female		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Rental Car	45	1.31	.468	64	1.64	.743
Bus Tour	18	1.00	.000	27	1.44	.506

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

The t-test table 4-43 illustrates a significant difference between African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination using ships or boats (T-value = -2.17, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .036$) during their leisure travel by life stage.

Table 4-43. T-test for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Transportation by Life Stage.

Type of Transportation	T Value	T Probability
Car	-0.27	.787
Airplane	-0.24	.812
Rental Car	1.32	.190
Bus Tour	1.59	.121
Ship/Boat	-2.17	.036**
Train	-0.72	.476
City Bus	1.03	.315
Bus	0.90	.390

**significant at .05 level.

Table 4-44. Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Transportation by Life Stage.

Type of Transportation	Early Adulthood			Middle Adulthood		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Ship/Boat	28	1.18	.390	18	1.50	.618

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

The early adulthood mean scores for perceived racial discrimination and use of ships or boats was 1.18, whereas the middle adulthood mean score was 1.50. African Americans in middle adulthood are more likely to perceive racial discrimination using ships or boats than early adulthood African Americans.

Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Accommodations by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

Tables 4-45, 4-46, 4- 47, and 4-48 and show no significant difference between African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination using accommodations by education, income, gender, and life stage. The results suggest that African Americans using various accommodations have similar means scores in their perceptions of racial discrimination, regardless of education, income, gender, and life stage.

Table 4-45. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Accommodations by Education.

Type of Accommodation	F Value	F Probability
Hotel/Motel	0.36	.701
Resort	2.22	.115
Condo/Time Share	0.61	.549
B & B	0.76	.477
RV/Tent	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Table 4-46. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Accommodations by Income.

Type of Accommodation	F Value	F Probability
Hotel/Motel	0.16	.854
Resort	1.18	.313
Condo/Time Share	0.61	.549
B & B	0.15	.864
RV/Tent	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Table 4-47. T-Test for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Accommodations by Gender.

Type of Accommodation	T Value	T Probability
Hotel/Motel	-0.76	.448
Resort	-0.98	.332
Condo/Time Share	-1.12	.270
B & B	-0.46	.652
RV/Tent	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Table 4-48. T-test for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Accommodations by Life Stage.

Type of Accommodation	T Value	T Probability
Hotel/Motel	0.61	.543
Resort	-1.41	.162
Condo/Time Share	0.07	.944
B & B	0.34	.734
RV/Tent	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Food-Service Facilities by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

No significant difference was found among African Americans' perceived racial discrimination using food-service facilities by education and life stage. Refer to tables 4-49 and 4-53. However, there were significant differences in several food-service facilities where African Americans had differing perceptions of racial discrimination by income and gender. There was a significant difference between African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination at fast-food restaurants by income (F -value = 3.95, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .022$). A post-hoc test was not computed because sample sizes too small. From the t-test table 4-51, there was a significant difference among the mean scores of African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination using fast-food restaurants (T -value = -3.27, $\alpha = .001$, $p = .001$) and hotel or motel restaurants (T -value = -2.14,

alpha = .05, $p = .034$) by gender. African Americans who perceived racial discrimination using fast-food restaurants yielded a female mean score of 1.66, whereas the male mean score was 1.35 (Table 4-52). Females had significantly higher perceptions of racial discrimination using fast-food restaurants than males.

Table 4-49. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Food-Service Facilities by Education.

Type of Food-Service Facility	F Value	F Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	0.71	.494
Fast-Food Restaurants	0.67	.512
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	0.48	.619
Cafeterias	0.07	.933

Table 4-50. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Food-Service Facilities by Income.

Type of Food-Service Facility	F Value	F Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	0.66	.520
Fast-Food Restaurants	3.95	.022**
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	0.17	.841
Cafeterias	2.96	.057

** significant at .05 level

Table 4-51. T-Test for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Food-Service Facilities by Gender.

Type of Food-Service Facility	T Value	T Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	-1.97	.051
Fast-Food Restaurants	-3.27	.001****
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	-2.14	.034**
Cafeterias	-1.63	.106

** significant at .05 level

**** significant at .001 level

Likewise, African Americans' perceived racial discrimination using hotel or motel restaurants yielded a female mean score of 1.74, whereas the male mean score was 1.51 (Table 4-52). Females had significantly higher perceptions of racial discrimination using hotel or motel restaurants than males.

Table 4-52. Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Food-Service Facilities by Gender.

Type of Transportation	Male			Female		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Fast-Food Restaurants	54	1.35	.520	65	1.66	.509
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	51	1.51	.543	61	1.74	.575

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Table 4-53. T-test for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Using Food-Service Facilities by Life Stage.

Type of Food-Service Facility	T Value	T Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	-0.06	.955
Fast-Food Restaurants	1.32	.191
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	0.84	.406
Cafeterias	0.19	.852

Perceived Racial Discrimination Participating in Activities by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

Several significant relationships were found between African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination while participating in activities during their leisure travel by education, income, gender, and, life stage. Table 4-54 reports the results of the one-way ANOVA between activities and perceived racial discrimination by education. The results suggest that there was a significant relationship between perceived racial discrimination in water sports (F -value = 3.77, α = .05, p = .034) by education. The

Scheffé post-hoc test (Table 4-55) was used to determine the differences among African Americans' perceived racial discrimination in water sports by level of education. African Americans with higher levels of education ($n = 13$, mean = 1.54) had higher mean scores of perceived racial discrimination in water sports than did lower income African Americans ($n = 8$, mean = 1.00). Thus, African Americans with higher levels of education are more likely to perceive racial discrimination while participating in water sports during their leisure travel than African Americans with lower levels of education. However, those with higher levels of education were more likely to participate in water sports.

Table 4-54. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Participating in Activities by Education.

Type of Activity	F Value	F Probability
Shopping	0.59	.554
Beaches	0.44	.647
Amusement Parks	0.48	.624
Museum/Historic Places	0.56	.572
Performing Arts	2.18	.118
Religious Events	1.11	.333
Sport Events	0.45	.637
Festivals - Mostly Black	1.60	.208
Festivals - Mostly White	2.03	.137
National/State Park	0.67	.513
Nightlife/Dancing	0.30	.744
Group Tours - Mostly White	0.90	.413
Group Tours - Mostly Black	2.54	.090
Tennis/Golf	1.18	.320
Water Sports	3.77	.034**
Fishing	0.73	.488
Skiing	0.94	.415
Camping	1.11	.360
Hunting	0.60	.625

** significant at .05 level

Table 4-55. Post Hoc for Perceived Racial Discrimination in Water Sports by Education.

Type of Activity	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Water Sports		
Lower Education (n = 8)	1.00 ^a	.2011
Middle Education (n = 15)	1.47 ^{a,b}	.2011
Higher Education (n = 13)	1.54 ^b	.2064

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences.

Note: Items that comprise each factor were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

The variable income was significantly related to African Americans' perceived racial discrimination and their participation in fishing (F-value = 5.67, alpha = .01, p = .008) and camping (F-value = 6.13, alpha = .01, p = .015) (Table 4-56).

Table 4-56. One Way ANOVA for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Participating in Activities by Income.

Type of Activity	F Value	F Probability
Shopping	1.23	.295
Beaches	0.26	.772
Amusement Parks	1.25	.292
Museum/Historic Places	0.02	.983
Performing Arts	1.16	.317
Religious Events	0.66	.518
Sport Events	0.02	.985
Festivals - Mostly Black	0.43	.654
Festivals - Mostly White	0.37	.693
National/State Park	1.10	.339
Nightlife/Dancing	2.21	.117
Group Tours - Mostly White	0.91	.410
Group Tours - Mostly Black	1.14	.329
Tennis/Golf	0.00	1.000
Water Sports	0.40	.677
Fishing	5.67	.008***
Skiing	0.40	.677
Camping	6.13	.015***
Hunting	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

*** significant at .01 level.

The results of the Scheffé post-hoc test (Table 4-57) suggest that African Americans with lower levels of income ($n = 3$, mean = 2.00) are more likely to perceive racial discrimination while fishing than middle income African Americans ($n = 12$, mean = 1.25). Likewise, lower income African Americans ($n = 3$, mean = 2.00) are more likely to perceive racial discrimination while fishing than higher income African Americans ($n = 18$, mean = 1.17). While a significant difference was found among African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination while camping by income, a post-hoc test was not performed because at least one group had fewer than two cases.

Table 4-57. Post Hoc for Perceived Racial Discrimination in Fishing by Income.

Factor	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Fishing		
Lower Income ($n = 3$)	2.00 ^a	.2569
Middle Income ($n = 12$)	1.25 ^b	.1483
Higher Income ($n = 18$)	1.17 ^b	.2481

Post hoc tests are not performed for camping because at least one group has fewer than two cases.

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences.

Note: Items that comprise each factor were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Table 4-58 presents the results of the t-test analysis for perceived racial discrimination in activities by gender. The results show a significant difference between perceived racial discrimination and participation in shopping (T-value = -2.56, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .012$), amusement parks (T-value = -2.77, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .007$), religious events (T-value = -2.59, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .011$), sport events (T-value = -2.12, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .037$), mostly white festivals (T-value = -2.07, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .041$), and mostly white (T-value = -4.36, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .000$) and black group tours (T-value = -2.13, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .038$) based on gender. The results suggest that women are more likely than

males to perceive racial discrimination while participating in all of the above activities than are males. Hence, women have higher rates of perceived racial discrimination while participating in certain activities during their leisure travel than men but they also participate in these activities more. The significant differences between male and female mean scores for perceived racial discrimination by activity are presented in table 4-59.

Table 4-58. T-Test for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Participating in Activities by Gender.

Type of Activity	T Value	T Probability
Shopping	-2.56	.012**
Beaches	-0.48	.629
Amusement Parks	-2.77	.007***
Museum/Historic Places	-0.93	.357
Performing Arts	-0.61	.543
Religious Events	-2.59	.011**
Sport Events	-2.12	.037**
Festivals - Mostly Black	-1.67	.098
Festivals - Mostly White	-2.07	.041**
National/State Park	-0.73	.467
Nightlife/Dancing	0.20	.842
Group Tours - Mostly White	-4.36	<.001****
Group Tours - Mostly Black	-2.13	.038**
Tennis/Golf	-0.79	.434
Water Sports	0.04	.972
Fishing	-0.98	.334
Skiing	-0.42	.684
Camping	-2.43	.029
Hunting	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

** significant at .05 level

*** significant at .01 level

****significant at .001 level

Table 4-59. Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Participating in Activities by Gender.

Type of Activity	Male			Female		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Shopping	55	1.76	.637	59	2.09	.742
Amusement Parks	48	1.27	.449	60	1.57	.621
Religious Events	37	1.14	.347	51	1.47	.731
Sports Events	40	1.35	.534	44	1.64	.685
Festivals – Mostly White	42	1.38	.492	46	1.65	.706
Group Tours – Mostly White	33	1.27	.452	31	1.84	.583
Group Tours – Mostly Black	25	1.12	.332	27	1.37	.492

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

The t-test table 4-60 presents the results of the significant relationships between perceived racial discrimination and activities by life stage. The results suggest that life stage was significantly related to African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination while participating in mostly black festivals (T-value = 2.47, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .015$), water sports (T-value = -3.67, $\alpha = .01$, $p = .001$), and camping (T-value = -2.79, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .015$). The early adulthood mean scores for perceived racial discrimination and participation in mostly black festivals was 1.23, whereas the middle adulthood mean score was 1.06. African Americans in early adulthood are significantly more likely to perceive racial discrimination attending mostly black festivals than middle adulthood African Americans. The early adulthood mean scores for perceived racial discrimination and participation in water sports was 1.16, whereas the middle adulthood mean score was 1.69. African Americans in middle adulthood are significantly more likely to perceive racial discrimination participating in water sports than early adulthood African Americans. The early adulthood mean scores for perceived racial discrimination and participation in camping was 1.00, whereas the middle adulthood mean score was 1.50.

African Americans in middle adulthood are significantly more likely to perceive racial discrimination while camping than early adulthood African Americans. The responses are presented in table 4-61.

Table 4-60. T-test for African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Participating in Activities by Life Stage.

Type of Activity	T Value	T Probability
Shopping	-0.12	.908
Beaches	0.80	.427
Amusement Parks	0.23	.822
Museum/Historic Places	-1.00	.315
Performing Arts	-0.10	.855
Religious Events	0.68	.496
Sport Events	-1.19	.240
Festivals - Mostly Black	2.47	.015**
Festivals - Mostly White	1.16	.248
National/State Park	1.64	.106
Nightlife/Dancing	-0.50	.616
Group Tours - Mostly White	0.61	.547
Group Tours - Mostly Black	-0.32	.752
Tennis/Golf	-0.51	.613
Water Sports	-3.67	.001****
Fishing	-0.90	.377
Skiing	-0.58	.569
Camping	-2.79	.015**
Hunting	-1.00	.423

** significant at .05 level

**** significant at .001 level

Table 4-61. Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between African Americans' Perceived Racial Discrimination Participating in Activities by Life Stage.

Type of Activity	Early Adulthood			Middle Adulthood		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Festivals - Mostly Black	44	1.23	.424	52	1.06	.235
Water Sports	19	1.16	.375	16	1.69	.479
Camping	9	1.00	.000	6	1.50	.548

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

**Relationships Between the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination During
Leisure Travel and Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage.**

6. What is the relationship between social class, gender, life stage and the influence of racial discrimination on the leisure travel behaviors (transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Transportation Behaviors by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

No significant difference was found among the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' use of modes of transportation by education, income, gender, or life stage. Thus, there was no difference in the mean scores of the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' uses of modes of transportation regardless of education, income, gender, or life stage. The responses are illustrated in tables 4-62, 4-63, 4-64, and 4-65.

Table 4-62. One Way ANOVA for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Transportation by Education.

Type of Transportation	F Value	F Probability
Car	0.70	.505
Airplane	0.46	.636
Rental Car	0.28	.756
Bus Tour	0.64	.548
Ship/Boat	1.24	.332
Train	d.	d.
City Bus	3.14	.151
Bus	2.57	.191

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Table 4-63. One Way ANOVA for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Transportation by Income.

Type of Transportation	F Value	F Probability
Car	0.77	.469
Airplane	0.27	.769
Rental Car	0.59	.558
Bus Tour	0.64	.548
Ship/Boat	0.40	.680
Train	d.	d.
City Bus	0.94	.463
Bus	0.64	.766

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Table 4-64. T-Test for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Transportation by Gender.

Type of Transportation	T Value	T Probability
Car	0.84	.407
Airplane	0.45	.653
Rental Car	0.98	.330
Bus Tour	d.	d.
Ship/Boat	-0.11	.915
Train	d.	d.
City Bus	-1.20	.286
Bus	-0.21	.846

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Table 4-65. T-test for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Transportation by Life Stage.

Type of Transportation	T Value	T Probability
Car	-0.90	.373
Airplane	-0.05	.962
Rental Car	-0.52	.609
Bus Tour	1.41	.188
Ship/Boat	-0.34	.742
Train	d.	d.
City Bus	0.00	1.000
Bus	-1.34	.272

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Accommodation Behaviors by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

The relationship between the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' use of accommodations was not significant based on income and gender. The responses are presented in tables 4-68 and 4-69. However, the results in table 4-66 show a significant difference between the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' use of hotels or motel (F-value, 3.29, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .042$) by education.

Table 4 – 66. One Way ANOVA for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Accommodations by Education.

Type of Accommodation	F Value	F Probability
Hotel/Motel	3.29	.042**
Resort	0.49	.618
Condo/Time Share	0.09	.915
B & B	0.33	.729
RV/Tent	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

** significant at .05 level.

The results of the Scheffé post-hoc test (Table 4-67) suggest that African Americans with middle levels of education have higher mean scores ($n = 36$, mean = 1.94) of the influence of perceived racial discrimination using hotels or motels than lower-education African Americans ($n = 28$, mean = 1.68). Because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination, African Americans with middle levels of education are less likely to change their use of hotels or motels compared to lower education African Americans.

Table 4-67. Post Hoc for Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Hotel/Motel by Education.

Type of Accommodation	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Hotel/Motel		
Lower Education (n = 28)	1.68 ^a	.1051
Middle Education (n = 36)	1.94 ^b	.1113
Higher Education (n = 23)	1.87 ^{a,b}	.1173

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences.

Scale 1 – 3 where 1 = “decrease in use”, 2 = “no change”, and 3 = “increase in use.”

Table 4-68. One Way ANOVA for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans’ Use of Accommodations by Income.

Type of Accommodation	F Value	F Probability
Hotel/Motel	0.04	.966
Resort	1.04	.364
Condo/Time Share	3.34	.058
B & B	0.33	.729
RV/Tent	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Table 4-69. T-Test for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans’ Use of Accommodations by Gender.

Type of Accommodation	T Value	T Probability
Hotel/Motel	-1.34	.182
Resort	0.96	.345
Condo/Time Share	0.00	1.000
B & B	0.42	.685
RV/Tent	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

Likewise, the t-test table 4-70 shows a significant difference between the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans’ use of condos or timeshares by life stage (T-value = -2.23, alpha = .05, p = .039). The early adulthood mean scores for the influence of perceived racial discrimination and use of condos or timeshares was 1.67, whereas the middle adulthood mean score was 2.00. African Americans in middle

adulthood are less likely to change their use of condos or timeshares because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination than early adulthood African Americans.

Table 4-70. T-test for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Accommodations by Life Stage.

Type of Accommodation	T Value	T Probability
Hotel/Motel	0.08	.934
Resort	-0.54	.594
Condo/Time Share	-2.23	.039**
B & B	-0.99	.356
RV/Tent	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

**significant at .05 level.

Table 4-71. Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' use of Accommodations by Life Stage.

Type of Accommodation	Early Adulthood			Middle Adulthood		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Condo/Timeshare	9	1.67	.500	11	2.00	.000

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Food-Service-Facility Behaviors by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

The results of tables 4-72 and 4-77 show no significant difference among the relationship between the influence of perceived racial discrimination and African Americans' use of food-service facilities by education and life stage. On the contrary, a significant difference was found between the influence of perceived racial discrimination and African Americans' use of hotel or motel restaurants based on income (F -value = 3.53, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .036$) (ANOVA Table 4-73) and the influence of perceived racial discrimination and African Americans' use of cafeterias based on gender (T -value = 2.34, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .025$) (T-test Table 4-75). The results of the Scheffé post-hoc test (Table

4-74) suggest that higher income African Americans (1.88) are less likely to change their use of hotel or motel restaurants because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination than are middle income African Americans (1.59). Specific to gender, men (1.93) are less likely to change their use of cafeterias because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination than women (1.59) (Table 4-76).

Table 4-72. One Way ANOVA for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Education.

Type of Food-Service Facility	F Value	F Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	0.62	.539
Fast-Food Restaurants	1.27	.288
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	2.27	.112
Cafeterias	1.50	.237

Table 4-73. One Way ANOVA for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Income.

Type of Food-Service Facility	F Value	F Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	1.47	.234
Fast-Food Restaurants	0.82	.446
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	3.53	.036**
Cafeterias	0.69	.510

** significant at .05 level.

Table 4-74. Post Hoc for Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Hotel/Motel Restaurants by Income.

Type of Food-Service Facility	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Hotel/Motel Restaurants		
Lower Income (n = 6)	1.83 ^{a,b}	.1866
Middle Income (n = 22)	1.59 ^a	.1108
Higher Income (n = 34)	1.88 ^b	.1794

Items with different subscripts indicate significant differences.

Scale 1 – 3 where 1 = "decrease in use", 2 = "no change", and 3 = "increase in use."

Table 4-75. T-Test for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Gender.

Type of Food-Service Facility	T Value	T Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	1.10	.275
Fast-Food Restaurants	0.79	.433
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	1.63	.108
Cafeterias	2.34	.025**

** significant at .05 level.

Table 4-76. Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Gender.

Type of Food-Service Facility	Male			Female		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Cafeterias	14	1.93	.267	27	1.59	.5001

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Table 4-77. T-test for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Use of Food-Service Facilities by Life Stage.

Type of Food-Service Facility	T Value	T Probability
Sit-Down Restaurants	-1.08	.283
Fast-Food Restaurants	-0.17	.868
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	-1.07	.288
Cafeterias	-0.45	.658

Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Activity Behavior by Social Class, Gender, and Life Stage

No significant difference was found between the influence of perceived racial discrimination and African Americans' participation in activities during their leisure travel by education and life stage. The responses are shown in tables 4-78 and 4-82.

Table 4-78. One Way ANOVA for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Participation in Activities by Education.

Type of Activity	F Value	F Probability
Shopping	0.02	.982
Beaches	0.12	.889
Amusement Parks	0.14	.869
Museum/Historic Places	0.40	.674
Performing Arts	1.13	.337
Religious Events	0.55	.583
Sport Events	0.87	.428
Festivals - Mostly Black	1.00	.405
Festivals - Mostly White	0.87	.426
National/State Park	0.34	.718
Nightlife/Dancing	0.44	.649
Group Tours - Mostly White	2.95	.068
Group Tours - Mostly Black	3.82	.059
Tennis/Golf	0.06	.943
Water Sports	0.17	.844
Fishing	1.00	.422
Skiing	e.	e.
Camping	d.	d.
Hunting	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

e. Influence of perceived racial discrimination on skiing was not included in the survey instrument.

However, a significant difference was found between the influence of perceived racial discrimination and African Americans' attendance at museum or historic places by income ($F\text{-value} = 3.76$, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .039$) (Table 4-79). Because of low cell sizes, a post-hoc test was not computed. Also, a significant difference was found between the influence of perceived racial discrimination and African Americans' participation at the beach by gender ($T\text{-value} = 2.55$, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .014$) (Table 4-80). The male mean score for the influence of perceived racial discrimination and participation at the beach was 2.05, whereas the female mean score was 1.72 (Table 4-81). The results suggest that because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination, African American men are less likely to change their participation rates at the beach than African American women.

Table 4-79. One Way ANOVA for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Participation in Activities by Income.

Type of Activity	F Value	F Probability
Shopping	0.59	.555
Beaches	0.34	.714
Amusement Parks	0.72	.492
Museum/Historic Places	3.76	.039**
Performing Arts	0.45	.644
Religious Events	0.30	.747
Sport Events	1.42	.257
Festivals - Mostly Black	0.85	.463
Festivals - Mostly White	1.00	.379
National/State Park	0.76	.482
Nightlife/Dancing	1.38	.265
Group Tours - Mostly White	1.70	.201
Group Tours - Mostly Black	0.42	.668
Tennis/Golf	0.41	.670
Water Sports	3.24	.082
Fishing	0.78	.507
Skiing	e.	e.
Camping	d.	d.
Hunting	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

e. Influence of perceived racial discrimination on skiing was not included in the survey instrument.

** significant at .05 level

Table 4-80. T-Test for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Participation in Activities by Gender.

Type of Activity	T Value	T Probability
Shopping	1.46	.148
Beaches	2.55	.014**
Amusement Parks	1.69	.098
Museum/Historic Places	0.81	.429
Performing Arts	1.23	.230
Religious Events	1.54	.136
Sport Events	0.89	.379
Festivals - Mostly Black	0.43	.676
Festivals - Mostly White	1.65	.107
National/State Park	0.92	.369
Nightlife/Dancing	0.83	.415
Group Tours - Mostly White	1.02	.316
Group Tours - Mostly Black	0.30	.773
Tennis/Golf	1.88	.080
Water Sports	0.90	.386
Fishing	1.14	.292
Skiing	e.	e.
Camping	d.	d.
Hunting	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

e. Influence of perceived racial discrimination on skiing was not included in the survey instrument.

** significant at .05 level.

Table 4-81. Mean (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Significant Relationships Between the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Participation in Activities by Gender.

Type of Activity	Male			Female		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Beach	20	2.05	.394	25	1.72	.458

Note: Items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 4 = "always."

Table 4-82. T-test for the Influence of Perceived Racial Discrimination on African Americans' Participation in Activities by Life Stage.

Type of Activity	T Value	T Probability
Shopping	-1.07	.290
Beaches	-1.18	.244
Amusement Parks	-0.05	.959
Museum/Historic Places	0.81	.429
Performing Arts	-0.60	.555
Religious Events	1.37	.182
Sport Events	0.49	.627
Festivals - Mostly Black	-0.56	.588
Festivals - Mostly White	-0.11	.917
National/State Park	0.17	.870
Nightlife/Dancing	0.83	.415
Group Tours - Mostly White	1.34	.191
Group Tours - Mostly Black	-0.59	.567
Tennis/Golf	-0.08	.935
Water Sports	-0.53	.605
Fishing	0.88	.407
Skiing	e.	e.
Camping	d.	d.
Hunting	d.	d.

d. There are fewer than two groups and no statistics are computed.

e. Influence of perceived racial discrimination in skiing was not included on the survey instrument.

Relationships Between Social Class, Gender, Life Stage, and Perceptions of Racial Discrimination on the Leisure-Travel Behaviors of African Americans.

7. What is the relationship between education, income, gender, and life stage, and perceptions of racial discrimination on the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

Relationships between Social Class, Gender, Life Stage, and Perceived Racial Discrimination in Transportation and Transportation Travel Behaviors.

Relationships were tested between social class, gender, life stage, the computed variable perceived racial discrimination in transportation and the computed variable transportation travel behaviors. Using the Pearson product moment correlation, four

relationships were statistically significant between income and computed transportation, income and education, life stage and education, and gender and computed perceived racial discrimination in transportation related to the transportation-travel behaviors of African Americans. The results are presented in Table 4-83. The strength of the relationship between income and computed transportation was .180 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and African Americans with higher incomes are more likely to use various modes of transportation during their leisure travel. Likewise, the strength of the relationship between income and education was .226 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and African Americans with higher levels of income are more likely to have higher levels of education. The strength of the relationship between life stage and education was .291 and is significant at the .001 level. The moderate strength of the relationship is positive and older African Americans tend to have higher levels of education. Finally, the strength of the relationship between computed perceived racial discrimination in transportation and gender was .208 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and perceptions of racial discrimination in transportation tend to be higher for women than men. Multicollinearity was not a factor because all of the correlations between all of the variables were relatively low. Hence all of the variables were included in the model, although the model was not significant.

Table 4-83. Pearson Correlations Between Transportation and Education, Income, Gender, Life Stage, and Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination and Computed Transportation Travel Behaviors.

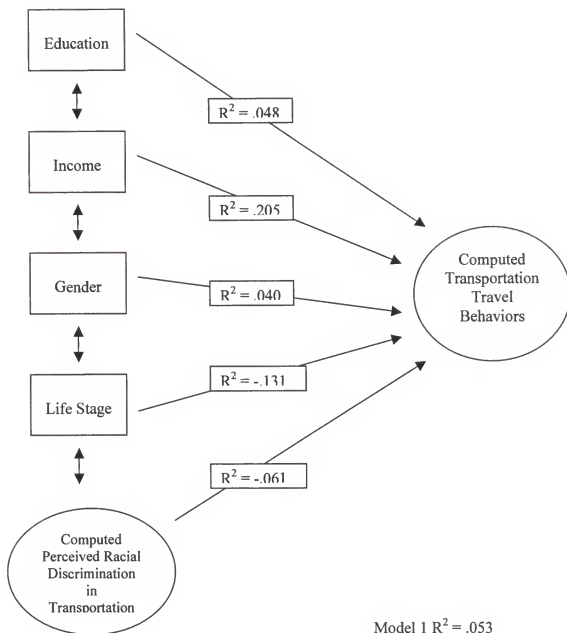
Independent Variables (n = 92)	Computed Transportation	Education	Income	Gender	Life Stage
Education	.048	-	-	-	-
Income	.180**	.226**	-	-	-
Gender	.012	-.083	-.151	-	-
Life Stage	-.091	.291***	.171	-.144	-
Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Transportation	-.031	.073	.119	.208**	.044

**significant at .05 level.

***significant at .01 level.

Table 4-84. ANOVA for Significance of Model 1.

Model 1	Mean	F Value	F Probability
Computed Transportation	1.76	.970	.441
Education	1.96		
Income	2.32		
Gender	1.55		
Life Stage	1.46		
Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Transportation	1.37		



Note: Refer to Correlation Table 4-83.

Figure 4-1. Relationships between Education, Income, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Transportation and Computed Transportation Travel Behaviors.

Relationships between Social Class, Gender, Life Stage, and Perceived Racial Discrimination in Accommodations and Accommodation Travel Behaviors.

Relationships were tested between social class, gender, life stage, the computed variable perceived racial discrimination in accommodations and the computed variable accommodation travel behaviors. Using the Pearson product moment correlation, five relationships are statistically significant between income and computed accommodations, income and education, life stage and education, life stage and income, and life stage and gender related to the computed accommodation travel behaviors of African Americans. The results are presented in Table 4-85. The strength of the relationship between income and computed accommodations was .350 and is significant at the .001 level. The moderate strength of the relationship is positive and African Americans with higher incomes are more likely to use accommodations during their leisure travel. Likewise, the strength of the relationship between income and education was .206 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and African Americans with higher levels of income are more likely to have higher levels of education. The strength of the relationship between life stage and education was .338 and is significant at the .001 level. The moderately high strength of the relationship is positive and older African Americans are more likely to have higher levels of education. The strength of the relationship between life stage and income was .191 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and older African Americans tend to have higher levels of income. Finally, the strength of the relationship between life stage and gender was -.190 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is negative and older African Americans tend to be male. Multicollinearity was not a factor because all of the correlations between

all of the variables were relatively low. Hence all of the variables were included in the model.

Table 4-85. Pearson Correlations Between Education, Income, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Accommodations and Computed Accommodation Travel Behaviors.

Independent Variables (n = 97)	Computed Accommodations	Education	Income	Gender	Life Stage
Education	.076	-	-	-	-
Income	.350****	.206**	-	-	-
Gender	-.013	-.119	-.152	-	-
Life Stage	.071	.338****	.191**	-.190**	-
Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Accommodations	-.064	.062	-.012	.132	.042

**significant at .05 level.

***significant at .01 level.

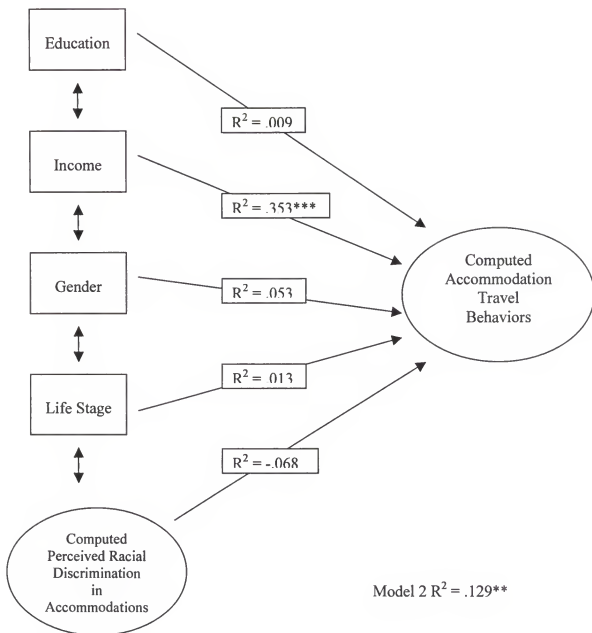
****significant at .001 level.

The ANOVA test (table 4-86) for the model (2) computed accommodation travel behaviors was significant (F-value = 2.689, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .026$) and explains 13 percent of the variance of the dependent variable that is accounted for by the independent variables (Figure 4-2). Thus, 13 percent of the variability in computed accommodation travel behaviors is explained by the differences in education, income, gender, life stage, and computed perceived racial discrimination in accommodations. Likewise, the relationship between income and computed accommodation travel behavior was significant at the .001 level and explains 35 percent of the variance of the dependent variable that is accounted for by the independent variable (Figure 4-2). More specifically, 35 percent of the variability in computed accommodation travel behavior is explained by the differences in income levels.

Table 4-86. ANOVA for Significance of Model 2.

Model 2	Mean	F Value	F Probability
Computed Accommodations	1.79	2.689	.026**
Education	1.95		
Income	2.37		
Gender	1.54		
Life Stage	1.45		
Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Accommodations	1.58		

**significant at .05 level.



Note: Refer to Correlation Table 4-85.

**significant at .05 level.

*** significant at .001 level.

Figure 4-2. Relationships between Education, Income, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Accommodations and Computed Accommodation Travel Behaviors.

Relationships between Social Class, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Food-Service Facilities, and Computed Food-Service Facility Travel Behaviors.

Relationships were tested between social class, gender, life stage, the computed variable perceived racial discrimination in food-service facilities and the computed variable food-service facility travel behaviors. Using the Pearson product moment correlation, four relationships are statistically significant between income and education, life stage and education, gender and income, and computed perceived racial discrimination in food-service facilities and gender related to the computed food-service-facility-travel behaviors of African Americans. The results are presented in Table 4-87. The strength of the relationship between income and education was .252 and is significant at the .01 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and African Americans with higher levels of income are more likely to have higher levels of education. The strength of the relationship between life stage and education was .320 and is significant at the .001 level. The moderate strength of the relationship is positive and older African Americans are more likely to have higher levels of education. The strength of the relationship between gender and income was -.163 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and female African Americans tend to have lower levels of income. Finally, the strength of the relationship between computed perceived racial discrimination in food-service facilities and gender was .284 and is significant at the .001 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and perceptions of racial discrimination in food-service facilities are higher by women than men. Multicollinearity was not a factor because all of the

correlations between all of the variables were relatively low. Hence all of the variables were included in the model, although the model was not significant.

Table 4-87. Pearson Correlations between Education, Income, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Food-Service Facilities, and Computed Food-Service Facility Travel Behaviors.

Independent Variables (n = 108)	Computed Food-Service Facilities	Education	Income	Gender	Life Stage
Education	.042	-	-	-	-
Income	.010	.252***	-	-	-
Gender	.098	-.068	-.163**	-	-
Life Stage	.054	.320****	.107	-.126	-
Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Food-Service Facilities	.042	-.113	-.157	.284****	-.096

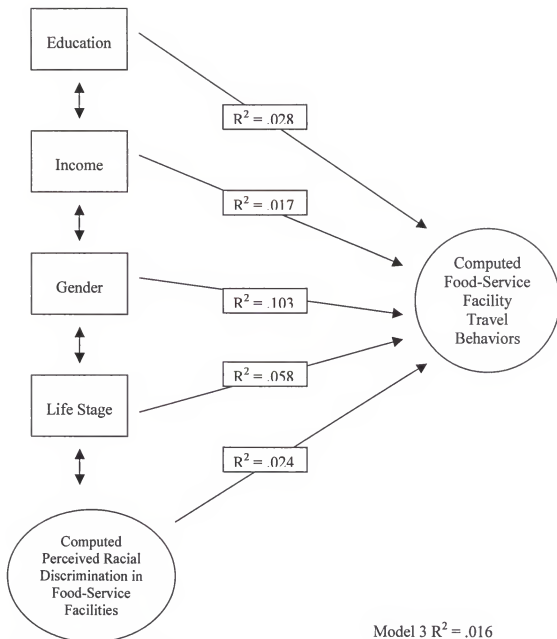
**significant at .05 level.

***significant at .01 level.

****significant at .001 level.

Table 4-88. ANOVA for Significance of Model 3.

Model 3	Mean	F Value	F Probability
Computed Food-Service Facilities	2.35	.321	.899
Education	1.93		
Income	2.29		
Gender	1.54		
Life Stage	1.47		
Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Food-Service Facilities	1.64		



Note: Refer to Correlation Table 4-87.

Figure 4-3. Relationships between Education, Income, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Food-Service-Facilities, and Computed Food-Service Facility Travel Behaviors.

Relationships between Social Class, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Activities and Activity Travel Behaviors.

Relationships were tested between social class, gender, life stage, the computed variable perceived racial discrimination in activities and the computed variable activity travel behaviors. Using the Pearson product moment correlation, five relationships are statistically significant between income and activities, income and education, life stage and education, gender and income, and computed perceived racial discrimination in activities and gender related to the activity travel behaviors of African Americans. The results are presented in Table 4-89. The strength of the relationship between income and activities was .276 and is significant at the .001 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and African Americans with higher incomes are more likely to participate in activities during their leisure travel. Likewise, the strength of the relationship between income and education was .230 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and African Americans with higher levels of income are more likely to have higher levels of education. The strength of the relationship between life stage and education was .332 and is significant at the .001 level. The moderate strength of the relationship is positive and older African Americans are more likely to have higher levels of education. The strength of the relationship between gender and income was -.181 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is negative and female African Americans tend to have lower income. Finally, the strength of the relationship between computed perceived racial discrimination in activities and gender was .230 and is significant at the .05 level. The relatively low strength of the relationship is positive and African Americans who perceive racial discrimination in activities tend to be female.

Multicollinearity was not a factor because all of the correlations between all of the variables were relatively low. Hence all of the variables were included in the model.

Table 4-89. Pearson Correlations Education, Income, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Activities, and Computed Activity Travel Behavior.

Independent Variables (n = 108)	Computed Activities	Education	Income	Gender	Life Stage
Education	.157	-	-	-	-
Income	.276***	.230**	-	-	-
Gender	-.126	-.086	-.181**	-	-
Life Stage	-.040	.332****	.135	-.115	-
Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination In Activities	.078	-.145	-.095	.230**	.030

**significant at .05 level.

***significant at .01 level.

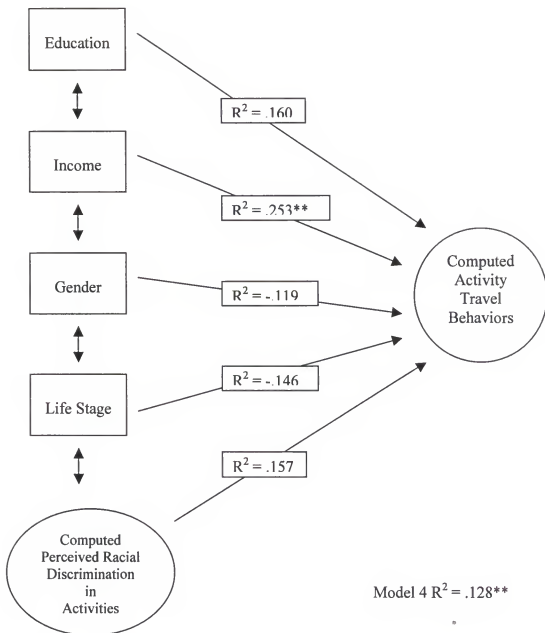
****significant at .001 level.

The ANOVA test (Table 4-90) for the model (4) activities and travel behavior was significant ($F\text{-value} = 2.701$, $\alpha = .05$, $p = .025$) and explains 13 percent of the variance of the dependent variable that is accounted for by the independent variables (Figure 4-4). Thus, 13 percent of the variability in computed activity travel behaviors is explained by the differences in education, income, gender, life stage, and computed perceived racial discrimination in activities. Likewise, the relationship between income and computed activity travel behavior was significant at the .05 level and explains 25 percent of the variance of the dependent variable that is accounted for by the independent variable (Figure 4-4). Thus, 25 percent of the variability in activity travel behavior is explained by the differences in income levels.

Table 4-90. ANOVA for Significance of Model 4.

Model 4	Mean	F Value	F Probability
Computed Activities	1.79	2.701	.025**
Education	1.91		
Income	2.37		
Gender	1.54		
Life Stage	1.45		
Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Activities	1.43		

**significant at .05 level.



Note: Refer to Correlation Table 4-89.

** significant at .05 level.

Figure 4-4. Relationships between Education, Income, Gender, Life Stage, Computed Perceived Racial Discrimination in Activities, and Activity Travel Behaviors.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this descriptive study was to identify the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and to determine the extent to which perceived racial discrimination, social class, gender, and life stage influence their leisure-travel behaviors. Those participants who were African American, had attended or graduated from the University of Florida, had traveled for leisure within the past two years at least 100 miles one way, and had stayed at least 24 hours overnight qualified for the study. The organization of this chapter is as follows: (a) Summary of Procedures and Treatment of the Data, (b) Summary of Findings, (c) Conclusions, (d) Discussion and Implications, and (e) Recommendations for Future Research.

Summary of Procedures and Treatment of the Data

A stratified sample of 800 African American men and women who had attended the University of Florida between the years of 1970 to 2000 were randomly selected for this study. The instrument used for this study was a self-administered questionnaire comprised of four areas: (a) leisure-travel behaviors, (b) perceived racial discrimination and leisure-travel behaviors, (c) influence of perceived racial discrimination on leisure-travel behaviors, and (d) demographic information.

A single mailing of the questionnaire was sent to 800 African Americans. Three weeks after the questionnaire was mailed, a follow-up postcard emphasizing the

importance of the survey was mailed to non-respondents. Of the 800 questionnaires initially mailed, 176 questionnaires were returned, although, 23 were ineligible because of incorrect addresses, 5 were ineligible because the respondents were not African American, and 17 were ineligible because of incomplete responses. The 28 respondents who had incorrect addresses and were not African American decreased the sample size from 800 to 772. Out of 772, a total of 131 eligible questionnaires were included in the study - response rate of 17 percent.

Descriptive statistics identified the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, their perceptions of racial discrimination, and the influence of perceived racial discrimination on their leisure-travel behaviors. T-test procedures identified statistically significant differences between the means of two groups. One-way ANOVAs were used to find significant differences between the means of three or more groups. If a significant difference was found between the groups, then a post-hoc or multiple-comparison test (i.e., Scheffé) was used to determine exactly which groups were significantly different from one another. Finally, multiple regression analysis was used to identify the extent to which social class, gender, life stage, and perceived racial discrimination could individually and collectively account for the differences in the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans.

Summary of Findings

Research Question 1: What are the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

When examining the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, automobiles and airplanes tended to be their primary modes of transportation and they sometimes used rental cars. In contrast, African Americans rarely used trains, city buses, or buses during their leisure travel. These findings are in keeping with the results from the Minority Travel Report conducted by TIA (1996).

The most heavily used accommodations by African Americans during their leisure travel were staying in hotels or motels followed by resorts. The finding coincides with the results in the Minority Travel Report. The Minority Travel Report showed that African Americans stayed in private homes almost as frequently as hotels or motels during their leisure travel; however, this study did not include the category private homes.

When African Americans used food-service facilities, they dined at sit-down restaurants the most and they sometimes dined at cafeterias, fast-food restaurants, and hotel or motel restaurants. In terms of the activities that African Americans participated in during their leisure travel, shopping was reported as the number one activity, which concurs with the findings from the Minority Travel Report. In the present study, African Americans also attended mostly black and white festivals, performing arts, religious and sporting events, went to beaches, amusement parks, museums or historic places, national and state parks, and participated in dancing or nightlife. Again, these findings are similar to the results found in the Minority Travel Report, although the activity performing arts was not included as a category in the list of activities from the Minority Travel Report. The general population has similar participation patterns in the preceding activities much like African Americans. In contrast, African Americans in this study rarely participated

in skiing, camping, or hunting. This finding is in keeping with the leisure behavior literature where African Americans tended to have lower participation rates in wildland or outdoor recreation activities than do whites. Likewise, the findings from the Minority Travel Report suggest that whites are more likely to participate in outdoor recreation activities than African Americans.

Research Question 2: What are African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination in their use of types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities during their leisure travel?

African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination seemed to be the most common in conjunction with the modes of transportation, types of accommodations, food-service facilities, and activities they used or participated in the most during their leisure travel. The findings suggested that at least 30 percent of African Americans in this study perceived racial discrimination using automobiles, airplanes, and rental cars, which were the most often used modes of transportation by African Americans during their leisure travel. While at least 30 percent perceived racial discrimination using automobiles, airplanes, and rental cars, less than 50 percent did not perceive racial discrimination. The findings seem to indicate that for some African Americans, the likelihood of perceiving racial discrimination increases in relation to the modes of transportation they are likely to use more often.

Similarly, perceived racial discrimination was more widespread in the accommodations that African Americans used the most during their leisure travel. The findings indicated the most common type of accommodation where African Americans perceived racial discrimination was staying at hotels or motels, followed by resorts. In

fact, 85 out of 127 African Americans in this study perceived racial discrimination while staying in hotels or motels. The findings are in keeping with Feagin's (1991) work where African Americans perceived racial discrimination staying at hotels. One of the respondents in Feagin's study stated, "I hate it when you go places and [white] people...think we work in housekeeping. Or they naturally assume that we came from a very poor background" (p. 107). This finding might explain the perceptions of racial discrimination felt by the African Americans in this study.

At least 33 to 77 percent of the African Americans in this study perceived racial discrimination when using food-service facilities. Regardless of the type of food-service facility used by African Americans during their leisure travel, they consistently perceived some form of racial discrimination. In fact, 100 out of 130 or 76 percent of the African Americans in this study reported perceiving racial discrimination at sit-down restaurants. This is not surprising considering in 1994 the court mandated Denny's, a restaurant chain, to pay \$54.4 million dollars to African Americans and other minority groups who encountered racism while dining at Denny's family style restaurants. The findings of this study seem to indicate that African Americans are still as likely to encounter racial discrimination when dining at food-service facilities. Additionally, the findings of this study coincide with Feagin's (1991) work where he found that the African Americans perceived racial discrimination when dining at restaurants. According to Feagin, poor service by restaurant employees was linked to African Americans feelings of racial discrimination. As such, this finding might help to explain the racial discrimination felt by the African Americans in this study when they used food-service facilities during their leisure travel.

In terms of African Americans' participation in activities and perceived racial discrimination, the findings showed that African Americans perceived some form of racial discrimination in 19 of the 19 activities presented in this study. Again, African Americans perceived racial discrimination in the activities they participated in the most during their leisure travel. The most common venue where African Americans perceived racial discrimination was shopping. Since the recurring finding in the study indicates that some African Americans more than others perceived racial discrimination in the travel services they use the most, it is not surprising to find that 72 percent perceived some form of racial discrimination when they shopped during their leisure travel. Feagin (1991) found that African Americans experienced racial discrimination while shopping. He suggested that whites tended to surveil African Americans during their shopping activities because stereotypical whites tended to view African Americans "as shoplifters, as unclean, as disreputable poor" (p. 107). Accordingly, African Americans in this study might have been faced with similar stereotypical white attitudes as they shopped during their leisure travel. Other activities where African Americans perceived racial discrimination were when they went to beaches, amusement parks, participated in dancing or nightlife, attended mostly white festivals, and sports events.

Research Question 3: Do perceptions of racial discrimination influence the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

The influence of perceived racial discrimination unexpectedly had almost no effect on the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. Even though African Americans reported perceived racial discrimination in their use of transportation,

accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities, the influence of perceived racial discrimination rarely decreased or increased their leisure-travel behaviors.

Overall, African Americans reported almost no change in their use of transportation because of the influence of perceived racial discrimination. The largest change in the transportation behaviors of African Americans was in their decreased use of rental cars. Likewise, African Americans rarely changed their use of accommodations despite the fact that they reported perceived racial discrimination. African Americans did decreased their use of hotels or motels, although the changes in their behaviors were rather minimal. In terms of the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' use of food-service facilities, they decreased their use in all of the four food-service facilities presented in this study, although these decreases were relatively low too. With respect to the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' participation in activities, again they rarely decreased and almost never increased their rates of participation in activities. The largest decreases in activities were found when African Americans went shopping and attended mostly white festivals. In most cases, African Americans almost never changed their leisure-travel behaviors because of perceived racial discrimination.

Research Question 4: What is the relationship between social class (i.e., education and income), gender, life stage, and the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

When examining the relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, and the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, the researcher found that all of the variables in this study showed some degree of significance in relation to the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. Through examination of the F and T probabilities, the researcher was able to determine which variables were significant.

Income was the strongest indicator of the transportation travel behaviors of African Americans. In particular, the relationship between airplane and income was significant where higher-income African Americans were more likely to fly during their leisure travel than lower-income African Americans. This finding is consistent with the travel trends of the general population. Likewise, income was the only variable that was significantly related to the accommodation travel behaviors of African Americans. The finding indicated that higher-income African Americans were more likely to stay in resorts and condos or timeshares than lower-income African Americans. Again, this finding is in keeping with the travel trends of the general population.

In contrast, education, income, and life stage were significantly related to the food-service-facility behaviors of African Americans. These variables represented the strongest indicators of African Americans' use of hotel or motel restaurants. The findings indicated that African Americans with higher levels of education were more likely to dine at hotel or motel restaurants than African Americans with lower and middle levels of education. Similarly, African Americans with higher incomes were more likely to dine at hotel or motel restaurants during their leisure travel than lower-income African Americans. Finally, African Americans in middle adulthood were more likely to dine at hotel or motel restaurants than early-adulthood African Americans.

The variables education, income, gender, and life stage all had some degree of influence on African Americans' participation in activities during their leisure travel. Four of the 19 activities presented in the study were significantly influenced by education, income, gender, and life stage. Education was the strongest indicator of African Americans' participation in mostly black festivals, tennis or golf, water sports, and skiing. The findings suggest African Americans with middle levels of education were more likely to participate in mostly black festivals than African Americans with lower levels of education. African Americans with lower and higher levels of education were more likely to participate in tennis or golf than African Americans with middle levels of education. Specific to water sports, African Americans with higher levels of education were more likely to participate than African Americans with lower levels of education. Similarly, African Americans with higher levels of education were more likely to participate in skiing than African Americans with lower and middle levels of education. While only a small number of African Americans in this study participated in tennis or golf, water sports, and skiing, the findings seem to indicate that participation in these activities were linked to social class status. Power and cultural self-confidence are derived from social class status and, as a result, African Americans with higher levels of education seemed to have developed the cultural self-confidence to feel comfortable participating in certain activities during their leisure travel.

Like the variable education, income was a strong predictor of African Americans' participation in tennis or golf and water sports, but also was the strongest indicator of their attendance at museums or historic places and mostly white festivals. The findings suggest African Americans with higher incomes were more likely to attend museums or

historic places, mostly white festivals, and participate in tennis or golf than middle income African Americans. Similarly, the findings showed African Americans with higher incomes were more likely than lower-income African Americans to participate in tennis or golf and water sports. These findings are consistent with the tourist behaviors of the general population. Furthermore, the overall findings seemed to be linked to social class status where African Americans with higher incomes seem to have acquired the cultural self-confidence to feel comfortable when participating in certain activities during their leisure travel.

Gender was the strongest indicator of African Americans' participation in shopping, religious events, nightlife or dancing, and fishing. The findings indicated women were more likely to shop and attend religious events during leisure travel than men. In contrast, men were more likely to participate in fishing and dancing or nightlife during their leisure travel than women. The finding that women tend to shop more during their leisure travel somewhat coincides with the results found by Squire (1994) and Carr (1999) where women were more likely to shop for souvenirs than men. Squire suggested that men and women viewed souvenir shopping as a feminine activity. Hence, the work by Squire might support the finding in this study that men have lower participation rates in shopping than women because men might view shopping as a feminine activity. In the same way, the lower participation rates of women in fishing might be linked to the idea that women view fishing as a masculine activity.

Like the variable income, life stage was a strong indicator of African Americans' attendance at museums or historic places and mostly white festivals. The findings suggest African Americans in middle adulthood were more likely to attend museums and

white festivals than African Americans in early adulthood. Similar to the variable education, life stage was a strong indicator of African Americans' attendance at mostly black festivals where African Americans in middle adulthood were more likely to attend mostly black festivals than African Americans in early adulthood. In addition, life stage was the strongest indicator of African Americans' attendance at amusement parks. The findings suggest that African Americans in early adulthood have significantly higher attendance rates at amusement parks than African Americans in middle adulthood. This finding is supported by Levinson's et al. (1978) research, which suggests that during the early adulthood stage, men and women are likely to have younger children, which might explain the higher participation rates of younger African Americans at amusement parks. Likewise, the findings are in keeping with Anderson and Langmeyer (1982) where men and women under age 50 were more likely to attend amusement facilities than men and women over the age of 50.

In summary, African Americans with higher levels of education were more likely to dine at hotel or motel restaurants, participate in water sports, tennis or golf, and skiing. African Americans with higher incomes were more likely to use airplanes, stay in resorts and condos or timeshares, dine at hotel or motel restaurants, visit museums, attend white festivals, and participate in tennis or golf. Various activities seemed to be gender specific: African American women were more likely to participate in shopping and religious events whereas African American men were more likely to participate in fishing and dancing or nightlife. Finally, African Americans in middle adulthood were more likely to dine at hotel or motel restaurants, visit museums or historic places, and attend

mostly white and black festivals whereas younger African Americans were more likely to attend amusement parks.

In terms of describing the overall leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, gender showed four significant relationships, education and life stage each showed five significant relationships, and income showed eight significant relationships. The results seem to indicate that income has the strongest predictive capabilities of the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans.

Research Question 5: What is the relationship between social class (i.e., education and income), gender, life stage, and African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination in their use of types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities during their leisure travel?

When examining the relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, and perceived racial discrimination during the leisure travel of African Americans, the researcher found that all of the variables in this study showed some degree of significance. Through examination of the F and T probabilities, the researcher was able to determine which variables were significant.

Gender and life stage were the strongest indicators of perceived racial discrimination in the transportation travel behaviors of African Americans. The relationships between gender and perceived racial discrimination in African Americans' use of rental cars and bus tours were significant. The findings indicated women were more likely to perceive racial discrimination using rental cars and taking bus tours during their leisure travel than men. Similarly, the relationship between life stage and perceived racial discrimination in African Americans' use of ships or boats was significant where

African Americans in middle-adulthood were more likely to perceive racial discrimination than African Americans in early adulthood. In contrast, education, income, gender, nor life stage was indicators of African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination while staying in accommodations.

Income and gender were the strongest indicators of African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination in their use of food-service facilities. The relationships between African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination at fast-food restaurants based on income and gender were significant. The researcher was unable to determine which income group had higher levels of perceived racial discrimination at fast-food restaurants because the group sizes were too small to conduct statistical comparisons. However, the findings showed women were more likely to perceive racial discrimination at fast-food restaurants and hotel or motel restaurants than men.

In contrast to the preceding findings, education, income, gender, and life stage were all strong indicators of African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination while they participated in certain activities during their leisure travel. Education was the strongest indicator of perceived racial discrimination in water sports where African Americans with higher levels of education were more likely to perceive racial discrimination than African Americans with lower levels of education. Income was a strong indicator of perceived racial discrimination in fishing and camping. African Americans with lower incomes were more likely to perceive racial discrimination while fishing than middle- and higher-income African Americans. A significant difference was found between income and African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination while

camping; however, a post-hoc test was not performed because one of the groups had fewer than two cases.

Gender was the strongest indicator of perceived racial discrimination in seven of the 19 activities presented in this study. The relationships between gender and perceived racial discrimination in the following activities were significant: shopping, amusement parks, religious events, sports events, mostly white festivals, mostly white group tours, and mostly black tours. The findings showed women were more likely to perceive racial discrimination in all of the activities listed above than men. In general, the results seem to indicate that African American women have more frequent perceptions of racial discrimination while participating in certain activities during their leisure travel than men. The confounding influence of gender and race might explain the more frequent perceptions of racial discrimination by women in certain activities than men.

Like the variable income, life stage was a strong indicator of African Americans' perceived racial discrimination while camping. The findings suggested African Americans in middle adulthood were more likely to perceive racial discrimination than early-adulthood African Americans. In addition, life stage was the strongest indicator of African Americans' perceived racial discrimination while participating in mostly black festivals where African Americans in early adulthood were more likely to perceive racial discrimination than middle-adulthood African Americans. Like the variable education, life stage was a strong indicator of African Americans' perceived racial discrimination while participating in water sports. The findings showed African Americans in middle adulthood were more likely to perceive racial discrimination in water sports than early-adulthood African Americans.

In summary, gender and life stage explained some of the differences in African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination using modes of transportation. Similarly, gender and income explained some of the differences in African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination using types of food-service facilities. The variables education, income, gender, and life stage were useful in describing the differences among African Americans' perceptions of racial discrimination while they participated in activities during their leisure travel. In terms of describing African Americans' overall perceptions of racial discrimination during their leisure travel, education showed one significant relationship, income showed three significant relationships, life stage showed four significant relationships, and gender showed eleven significant relationships. The results seem to indicate that gender has the strongest predictive capabilities in relation to African Americans' overall perceptions of racial discrimination during leisure travel.

Research Question 6: What is the relationship between social class (i.e., education and income), gender, life stage, and the influence of racial discrimination on the leisure travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

When examining the relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, and the influence of perceived racial discrimination on the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, the researcher found all of the variables in this study showed some degree of significance in relation to the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. Through examination of the F and T probabilities, the researcher was able to determine which variables were significant.

No significant relationships were found between education, income, gender, and life stage and the influence of perceived racial discrimination on the transportation travel behaviors of African Americans. In contrast, significant relationships were found between education, life stage, and the influence of perceived racial discrimination on the accommodation travel behaviors of African Americans. Education was the strongest indicator of the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' use of hotels or motels. The findings suggested that African Americans with low levels of education were more likely to decrease their use of hotels or motels than African Americans with middle levels of education. Life stage was the strongest indicator of the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' use of condos or timeshares where African Americans in early adulthood were more likely to decrease their use of condos or timeshares than African Americans in middle adulthood.

In relation to food-service facilities, income and gender seemed to best describe the influence of perceived racial discrimination. Significant relationships were found between income and the influence of perceived racial discrimination on use of hotel or motel restaurants as well as between gender and cafeterias. The findings indicated middle-income African Americans were more likely to decrease their use of hotel or motel restaurants because of perceived racial discrimination than higher-income African Americans. Similarly, women were more likely to decrease their use of cafeterias than men because of perceived racial discrimination. Likewise, the variables income and gender were the strongest indicators of the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' participation in activities. There was a significant relationship between income and museums or historic places. However, because of low group sizes,

the researcher was unable to determine the difference between the three income groups. In addition, a significant relationship was found between gender and going to beaches where women were more likely to decrease their participation at the beach because of perceived racial discrimination than men.

In summary, education and age explained some of the differences in the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' use of accommodations. Similarly, income and gender explained some of the differences in the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' use of food-service facilities. Likewise, the variables income and gender were useful in describing the differences in the influence of perceived racial discrimination on African Americans' participation in certain activities during their leisure travel. In terms of describing the overall influence of perceived racial discrimination on the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans, the variables education, income, gender, and life stage showed relatively few significant relationships. The results seem to indicate that these socio-structural variables had limited predictive capabilities in determining the leisure-behaviors of African Americans in relation to the influence of perceived racial discrimination.

Research Question 7: What is the relationship between social class (i.e., education and income), gender, life stage and perceptions of racial discrimination on the leisure-travel behaviors (types of transportation, accommodations, food-service facilities, and participation in activities) of African Americans?

Four models were tested to determine whether the relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, and perceived racial discrimination could individually and collectively account for variation in the leisure-travel behaviors of

African Americans. First, the researcher used the Pearson product moment correlation to determine whether multicollinearity existed between the five independent variables used in each model. In each of the four models, the independent variables showed some degree of associations that were significant. Although the relationships between most of the independent variables were significant, the strength of the associations between the independent variables was relatively low. Hence, all of the independent variables were included in each model.

The researcher then used multiple linear regression to examine the predictive capabilities of the four models presented in this study. Model 1 tested for significant relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, perceived racial discrimination in transportation and the transportation travel behaviors of African Americans. Model 2 tested for significant relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, perceived racial discrimination in accommodations and the accommodation travel behaviors of African Americans. Model 3 tested for significant relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, perceived racial discrimination in food-service facilities and the food-service-facility travel behaviors of African Americans. Model 4 tested for significant relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, perceived racial discrimination in activities and the activity travel behaviors of African Americans. The results of these analyses indicated two significant findings.

First, when examining the individual influences of the independent variables on the dependent variable, Models 2 and 4 showed significant relationships between income and the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans. These

findings suggested that income has moderate predictive capabilities of the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans. More specifically, African Americans with higher incomes are more likely to use certain accommodations and participate in certain activities during their leisure travel than lower- and middle-income African Americans. Consistent with the previous findings of this study and the travel trends of the general population, income is linked to certain leisure-travel behaviors.

Second, when examining the collective influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable, Models 2 and 4 were significant and showed some predictive capabilities of the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans. More specifically, education, income, gender, life stage, and perceived racial discrimination collectively accounted for the variations in the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans. The findings showed that Model 2 had relatively low capabilities of predicting the accommodation travel behaviors of African Americans. Likewise, Model 4 had relatively low capabilities of predicting the activity travel behaviors of African Americans. Although the predictive capabilities of these two models were relatively low, the findings were significant and seemed to explain some of the differences between the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans during their leisure travel.

Conclusions

Based upon the findings of the study, the following conclusions are presented.

1. College-educated affluent African Americans are highly active participants in the travel and tourism industry. These leisure travelers tend to use automobiles and airplanes, stay in hotels or motels, dine at sit-down restaurants, and go shopping.
2. Some of these college-educated affluent leisure travelers are likely to perceive racial discrimination in the travel services and activities they use or participate in the most, although 25 to 50 percent do not perceive racial discrimination using these same travel services and activities. Perceptions of racial discrimination were the most common when African Americans used automobiles, airplanes, and rental cars, stayed at hotels or motels, dined at sit-down restaurants, and went shopping.
3. Overall, the influence of perceived racial discrimination rarely increased or decreased the leisure-travel behaviors of some African Americans. However, when some African Americans decreased their leisure-travel behaviors because of perceived racial discrimination, they were more likely to decrease their use or participation in the travel services or activities that they had used or participated in the most during their leisure travel. As such, some African Americans were more likely to decrease their use of automobiles and airplanes, hotels or motels, sit-down restaurants, and participation in shopping, although these decreases were relatively low.
4. The variable gender is somewhat useful to understand the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and participation in activities during leisure travel. In general, some African American women are more likely to perceive racial discrimination

in certain activities than some African American men. The combination of gender and race seem to result in an increase in perceptions of racial discrimination when African American women participated in certain travel related activities.

5. Overall, income is the most useful variable to predict some of the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans.

6. The collective influence of education, income, gender, life stage, and perceived racial discrimination has relatively low, yet significant capabilities of predicting the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans.

Discussion and Implications

The body of knowledge on the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans is largely unexplored. In fact, no previous work has examined the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and their perceptions of racial discrimination. This study sought to identify the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and to determine the effects of perceived racial discrimination, social class (i.e., education and income), gender, and life stage on the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans.

Because so little research has characterized the factors that influence the travel behaviors of African Americans, Philipp (1993; 1994) recognized the need to address the concept of racial discrimination in analyzing the travel behaviors of African Americans. In this present study, African Americans, some more than others, perceived racial discrimination during their leisure-travel experiences. This finding seems to suggest that some African Americans perceived that they had been denied the same rights and privileges that were available to whites during their leisure-travel experiences. This is a

serious quality of life issue for African Americans and the tourism industry must implement long-term preventative measures to eradicate this unequal treatment of African Americans during their leisure travel experiences. Furthermore, it was surprising to find that even though African Americans perceived racial discrimination, they seldom changed their leisure-travel behaviors. Why do African Americans continue to use travel services and participate in activities where they perceive racial discrimination? Further study is needed to determine the reasons why African Americans do not change their leisure behaviors because of perceived racial discrimination.

On the one hand, this study found some African Americans perceived racial discrimination during their leisure travel. However, on the other hand, this study found little evidence to suggest that African Americans changed their leisure-travel behaviors because of perceived racial discrimination. Importantly, this is the first study to identify the existence of perceived racial discrimination when African Americans travel for leisure in the United States. This finding significantly contributes to the literature on travel behavior and race and substantiates the long-standing problem of racial discrimination in the lives of African Americans.

This study also found that income seemed to describe the differences in the accommodation and activity travel behaviors of African Americans. This finding might be consistent with the marginality perspective. Certainly the marginality perspective is more complex than income, but it might lend to an increased understanding of the under participation of African Americans in certain travel services and activities because of socio-economic discrimination. In contrast, the collective influence of education, income, gender, life stage, and perceived racial discrimination resulted in low predictive

capabilities in relation to the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. This finding might have been limited by the low number of respondents in the study and by the homogeneity of the sample. As a result, future research should include a larger and more heterogeneous African American population when examining the factors that influence the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans.

In summary, this study illustrates that college-educated affluent African Americans are active leisure travelers who utilize various segments of the travel and tourism industry. Unfortunately, some African American travelers perceive racial discrimination during their leisure travel. To disregard the reality of perceived racial discrimination in the leisure-travel experiences of African Americans is to exclude African Americans from the same rights and privileges that are available to whites during their leisure travel. While perceived racial discrimination is a sensitive and challenging issue, further research is needed to understand this phenomenon and preventative measures are needed to eradicate this serious quality of life issue.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. Further research should consider using telephone or face-to-face surveys in order to increase the response rates of samples that include African American populations. Studies tend to have higher response rates when using these survey methods with African American groups.
2. If this study were to be conducted again, the statements on the questionnaire that read, "Have your experiences of perceived racial discrimination influenced your use or non-use of types of transportation, accommodations, and food-service facilities?" should be

changed to, “Have your experiences of perceived racial discrimination influenced your use of types of transportation, accommodations, and food-service facilities?”

3. In addition, to more accurately represent the life stages of Levinson’s life span model, a future study should include the respondent’s marital status, number of children, and ages of children.

4. Recognizing the response rate of the study is relatively low and the sample is not representative of the entire African American population, it is recommended that a representative national sample of African Americans be obtained to more accurately reflect the relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, perceived racial discrimination and the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans.

5. Further investigation of the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and their perceptions of racial discrimination should be investigated using qualitative research methods. The additional information would further characterize the discriminatory practices African Americans are subjected to during their leisure travel and would assist the tourism industry in taking the necessary steps to reduce discrimination where it occurs.

6. It is recommended that a future study examine the differences between the leisure-travel behaviors of college-educated and high-school-educated African Americans and the differences between their perceptions of racial discrimination during leisure travel. It would be interesting to determine if African Americans with high-school educations were

more likely to perceive racial discrimination during their leisure travel than college-educated African Americans.

7. Moreover, a future study should examine the relationships between education, income, gender, life stage, and perceived racial discrimination on the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and whites. It would be interesting to determine if perceived racial discrimination accounts for the differences between the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans and whites.

APPENDIX
THE LEISURE TRAVEL PATTERNS OF AFRICAN AMERICANS AND
PERCEIVED RACIAL DISCRIMINATION SURVEY

March 15, 2001

Dear University of Florida Alumnus:

Each year millions of African Americans travel to a variety of tourism destinations throughout the country. Unfortunately, African Americans are possibly subjected to discriminatory practices during leisure-related travel. There is very little documentation of the extent to which racial discrimination is experienced in leisure travel and of how discrimination affects the travel patterns of African-Americans. The University of Florida Alumni Association is forwarding this mail to you to assist the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism; however, they are not affiliated with the study.

Mrs. Delphine Jackson, President Elect of the University of Florida Alumni Association and former President of the University of Florida Black Alumni Association has endorsed the study.

As a Florida Alumnus, you are being asked to give your opinions on these matters. Your name was randomly selected from the Alumni Association database at the University of Florida. In order that the results truly represent the opinions of Florida Alumnus, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so we may check your name off of the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire.

The results of this study will be made available to tourism industry officials and other interested citizens. Hopefully, the study will increase awareness of the extent of discrimination in leisure travel and lead to steps to reduce discrimination where it occurs.

You may receive a summary of the results by writing, "copy of the results requested" on the back of the return envelope, and printing your name and address below it. Please do not put this information on the questionnaire itself.

I would be happy to answer any questions you might have. My telephone number is 352-392-4042 x1395 and I can also be reached by e-mail Willming@hhp.ufl.edu.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Cynthia L. Willming

Delphine Jackson



THE LEISURE TRAVEL PATTERNS OF BLACKS AND RACIAL DISCRIMINATION PROJECT

University of Florida
Department of Recreation, Parks and Tourism
Gainesville, FL 32611-8208
March 2001

Blacks, Perceived Racial Discrimination, and Leisure Travel Survey

Introduction: This questionnaire will ask you about your *leisure travel* (e.g. weekend, holiday, family, etc.), *perceived racial discrimination*, and the *influence of racial discrimination* on your leisure travel patterns.

The term **perceived racial discrimination** is broadly described as avoidance actions (e.g. people not helping you), rejection actions (e.g. poor service), verbal attacks (e.g. racial remarks), physical threats and/or harassment by other people, and physical attacks by other people because you are African American.

1. Have you taken at least one leisure trip in the U.S., within the past 2 years, which was at least 100 miles away from your home and you stayed at least 24 hours. (Please circle)

1.....Yes If yes, please proceed to Part I below.

2.....No If no, please complete questions 11 – 18 and mail.

Part I. Questions in this section will ask you to rate your *frequency of use* related to the types of transportation, accommodations, and food services, to rate your degree of *perceived racial discrimination* associated with each (if any), and to indicate the extent to which racial discrimination has *influenced your frequency of use* with each during your leisure travel.

2. Tell me about the types of transportation you use during your leisure travel in the U.S.
(Please circle the appropriate numbers for each column.)

	What types of transportation have you used during your leisure travel in the U.S.?				Have you experienced perceived racial discrimination using these types of transportation?					Have your experiences of perceived racial discrimination influenced your use or non-use of these types of transportation?			
	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	NA	Decrease in use	No Change	Increase in use	NA
Car	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Rental Car	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Airplane	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Ship/Boat	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Train	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Bus	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
City Bus	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Bus Tour	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Other _____ (please list)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4

3. Now tell me about the types of accommodations you use during your leisure travel in the U.S.
(Please circle the appropriate numbers for each column.)

	What types of accommodations have you used during your leisure travel in the U.S.?					Have you experienced perceived racial discrimination using these types of accommodations?					Have your experiences of perceived racial discrimination influenced your use or non-use of these types of accommodations?			
	Never 1	Sometimes 2	Often 3	Always 4		Never 1	Sometimes 2	Often 3	Always 4	NA 5	Decrease in use 1	No Change 2	Increase in use 3	NA 4
Hotel/Motel														
Resort	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Bed & Breakfast	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
RV/Tent	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Condo/Time Share	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Other _____ (please list)	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4

4. Finally, tell me about the types of food service facilities you use during your leisure travel in the U.S.
(Please circle the appropriate numbers for each column.)

	What types of food service facilities have you used during your leisure travel in the U.S.?					Have you experienced perceived racial discrimination using these types of food service facilities?					Have your experiences of perceived racial discrimination influenced your use or non-use of these types of food service facilities?			
	Never 1	Sometimes 2	Often 3	Always 4		Never 1	Sometimes 2	Often 3	Always 4	NA 5	Decrease in use 1	No Change 2	Increase in use 3	NA 4
Sit Down Restaurants														
Fast Food Restaurants	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Cafeterias	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Hotel/Motel Restaurants	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Other _____ (Please list)	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4

Part II. Questions in this section will ask you to rate your levels of participation in *activities*, to rate your degree of *perceived racial discrimination* associated with each (if any), and to indicate whether perceived racial discrimination has influenced your frequency of participation for each during your leisure travel.

5. Tell me about the types of activities you participate in during your leisure travel in the U.S.
(Please circle the appropriate numbers for each column.)

[illegible]

Part III. This section will ask you about your perceived racial discrimination related to destinations visited in the U.S. and interactions with whites during your leisure travel. *(Please list each state on the lines provided.)*

6. Tell me which states you tend to avoid or feel uncomfortable visiting because of perceived racial discrimination during your leisure travel. *(Please list each state on the lines provide.)*

State: _____ State: _____ State: _____ State: _____

State: _____ State: _____ State: _____ State: _____

7. Now tell me which states you tend to feel the most comfortable visiting.

State: _____ State: _____ State: _____ State: _____

State: _____ State: _____ State: _____ State: _____

8. Do social interactions with whites increase your perceived racial discrimination during your leisure travel in the U.S.? Yes.....1 No.....2

Part IV. This section will ask you about some of your other travel behaviors.
(Please circle the appropriate numbers.)

9. Do you use travel services that advertise to Blacks? Yes.....1 If yes, please explain. No.....2

10. With whom do you travel with during your leisure travel?

	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	NA
Spouse	1	2	3	4	5
Children	1	2	3	4	5
Friends	1	2	3	4	5
Relatives	1	2	3	4	5
Other	1	2	3	4	5
(please list)					

11. How many nights do you stay at your destination during your leisure travel?

	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always
One night	1	2	3	4
Two to three nights	1	2	3	4
Four to five nights	1	2	3	4
Six to seven nights	1	2	3	4
Eight to nine nights	1	2	3	4
Ten nights or more	1	2	3	4
Other	1	2	3	4
(please list)				

Part V. Finally, a few background questions about you to help me interpret your answers.
(Please circle the appropriate number.)

12. Are you? Male.....1 Female.....2

13. What is your racial category? African American.....1 Jamaican....2 West Indian.....3
Black Puerto Rican....4 Haitian.....5 Nigerian.....6

14. In what year were you born? _____ Year

15. In which region of the United States do you currently live?

Pacific:.....1
Washington,
Oregon, California,
Alaska, & Hawaii

Mountain:.....2
Idaho, Utah,
Montana, Colorado,
& Wyoming

Midwest:.....3
Wisconsin, Ohio,
Michigan, Illinois,
Indiana, & Kentucky

Plains:.....4
Minnesota, Iowa,
North & South Dakota,
Nebraska, Kansas, &
Missouri

Mid Atlantic:.....5
West Virginia, Virginia,
District of Columbia,
Delaware, Maryland, &
North Carolina

Northeast:.....6
Maine, Vermont,
New Hampshire, New York,
Massachusetts, Connecticut,
Pennsylvania, & New Jersey

Southeast:.....7
Mississippi, Tenn.,
Alabama, S. Carolina,
Georgia, & Florida

Southwest:.....8
Nevada, Arizona,
& New Mexico

South Central:.....9
Texas, Oklahoma,
Arkansas, & Louisiana

16. What is the highest level of education you have obtained?

Some undergraduate work.....1
Bachelors degree.....2
Some graduate work.....3

Masters degree.....4
Some work on Ed. D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D5
Ed. D., Ph.D., J.D., or M.D6

17. Which category best describes your family's 2000 annual income (before taxes)?

Less than \$15,000.....1
\$15,001 to \$24,999.....2
\$25,000 to \$34,999.....3

\$35,000 to \$44,999.....4
\$45,000 to \$54,999.....5
\$55,000 to \$64,999.....6

\$65,000 to \$74,999.....7
\$75,000 to \$84,999.....8
\$85,000 & above.....9

18. Which category best describes your employment status? (Choose one)

Employed full-time....1
Employed part-time...2

Homemaker.....3
Student.....4

Unemployed.....5
Retired.....6

19. Would you be willing to share any of your leisure-related travel experiences that involved perceived racial discrimination? (Please write in the box provided.)

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

MAILING INSTRUCTIONS: Please fold your completed questionnaire and place it in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided and then mail.

REFERENCES

- Agarwal, V. & Yochum, G. (1999). Tourist spending and race of visitors. Journal of Travel Research, 38 (2), 173-176.
- Aitchison, C. (1996). Gendered tourist spaces and places: the masculinization and militarization of Scotland's heritage. Paper presented at the LSA/VVS 1996 Conference, Accelerating leisure? Leisure, time and space in a transitory society. Wageningen, Netherlands, September 14, 1996.
- Allport, G. (1958). The nature of prejudice. New York: Anchor.
- Anderson, M. L. (1997). Studying across differences: race, class and gender in qualitative research. In J. Stanfield & R. Dennis, (Eds.). Race and ethnicity in research methods (pp. 39-52). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Anderson, B. B. & Langmeyer, L. (1982). The under 50 and over 50 travelers: a profile of similarities and differences. Journal of Travel Research, 20 (1), 20-24.
- Anderson, L. & Littrell, M. (1996). Group profiles of women as tourists and purchasers of souvenirs. Family & Consumer Sciences Research Journal, 25 (1), 28-56.
- Apostolopoulos, Y. (1996). The effects of tourism expansion in the Greek Islands: Regional tourism planning and policy lessons for sustainable development. Athens: Papazissis Publishers.
- Bartos, R. (1973). Working women: the invisible consumer market. Travel and Tourism Research Association Conference, August, 14.
- Bartos, R. (1982). Women and travel. Journal of Travel Research, 20 (4), 3-9.
- Beeghly, L. (2000). The structure of social stratification in the United States. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Blahna, D. J. & Black, K. S. (1993). Racism: A concern for recreation resource managers? In P. Gobster (Ed.), Managing urban and high-use recreation settings. General Technical Report NC-163 (pp. 111-118). St. Paul, MN: USDA, Forest Service, North Central Forest Experiment Station.
- Bourdieu, P. (1984). Distinction: A social critique of the judgment of taste. London: Routledge.

Broman, C. L., Mavaddat, R. & Hsu, S. (2000). The experience and consequences of perceived racial discrimination: A study of African Americans. Journal of Black Psychology, 26 (2), 165-181.

Brown, A. & Whigham-Desir, M. (1997). Marketing to black travelers. Black Enterprise, 8, (27), 97.

Carr, N. (1999). A study of gender differences: young tourist behavior in a UK coastal resort. Tourism Management, 20, 223-228.

Chambers, D. (1986). The constraints of work and domestic schedules on women's leisure. Leisure Studies, 5, 309-325.

Cheek, N., Field, D., & Burdge, R. (1976). Leisure and recreation places. Ann Arbor, MI: Ann Arbor Sciences.

Cohen, E. (1974). Who is a tourist? A conceptual clarification. Sociological Review, 22, 527-555.

Cohen, E. (1984). The sociology of tourism: Approaches, issues, and findings. Annual Review of Sociology, 10, 373-392.

Cox, R. (1990). Problems with research by organizational researchers on issues of race and ethnicity. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 26 (1), 5-23.

Crawford, D., & Godbey, G. (1987). Reconceptualizing barriers to family leisure. Leisure Sciences, 9, 119-127.

Dann, G. & Cohen, E. (1991). Sociology and tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 18, 155-169.

Davidson, P. (1996). The holiday and work experiences of women with young children. Leisure Studies, 15, 89-103.

Deem, R. (1982). Women, leisure, and inequality. Leisure Studies, 1, 29-46.

Deem, R. (1986). All work and no play? The study of women in leisure. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Deem, R. (1996). Women, the city and holidays. Leisure Studies, 15, 105-119.

Delphy, C. (1980). A materialist feminism is possible. Feminist Review, 4, 79-105.

Dillman, D. (1978). Mail and telephone surveys: the total design method. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Dillman, D., Sinclair, M., & Clark, J. (1993). Effects of questionnaire length, respondent-friendly design, and a difficult question on response rates for occupant-addressed Census Mail Surveys. Public Opinion Quarterly, 57, 289-304.

Dwyer, J. & Hutchison, R. (1990). Outdoor recreation participation and preferences by black and white Chicago households. In J. Vining (Ed.), Social science and natural resource recreation management (pp. 49-67). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Edwards, R. (1990). Connecting method and epistemology: a white woman interviewing black women. Women's Studies International Forum, 13, 477-490.

Enloe, C. (1989). On the beach: sexism and tourism. In C. Enloe. Bananas, beaches and bases: making feminist sense of international politics (pp. 19-41). London: Pandora.

Essed, P. (1991). Understanding everyday racism: An interdisciplinary theory. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Fairburn-Dunlap, P. (1994). Gender, culture and tourism development in Western Samoa. In B. Kinnaird & D. Hall, (Eds.). Tourism: a gender analysis (pp. 121-141). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Feagin, J. R. (1991). The continuing significance of race: Antiracism discrimination in public places. American Sociological Review, 56, 101-116.

Feagin, J. R. & Eckberg, D. L. (1980). Discrimination: Motivation, action, effects, and context. Annual Review of Sociology, 6, 1-20.

Feagin, J. R. & Sikes, M. P. (1994). Living with racism: The black middle-class experience. Boston: Beacon Press.

Firestone, J., & Shelton, B. (1994). A comparison of women and men's leisure time: Subtle effects of the double day. Leisure Sciences, 16, 45-60.

Floyd, M. F. (1998). Getting beyond marginality and ethnicity: The challenge for race and ethnic studies in leisure research. Journal of Leisure Research, 30 (1), 3-22.

Floyd, M. F. & Gramann, J. H. (1993). Effects of acculturation and structural assimilation in resource-based recreation: The case of Mexican Americans. Journal of Leisure Research, 26, 6-21.

Floyd, M. F., McGuire, F. A., Shiner, K. J., & Noe, F. P. (1994). Race, class, and leisure activity preferences: Marginality and ethnicity revisited. Journal of Leisure Research, 26 (2), 158-173.

Freysinger, V. (1999). Life span and life course perspectives on leisure. In E. Jackson & T. Burton, (Eds.). Leisure studies: prospects for the twenty-first century (pp. 253 -270). State College, Pennsylvania: Venture Publishing Inc.

Frew, A. & Shaw, R. (1999). The relationship between personality, gender, and tourism behavior. Tourism Management, 20, 193-202.

Gibson, H. & Yiannakis, A. (in press). Tourist roles, needs and the adult life course. Annals of Tourism Research, 28, (3).

Gobster, P. H. & Delgado, A. (1992). Ethnicity and recreation use in Chicago's Lincoln Park: In-park user survey findings. In P. H. Gobster (Ed.), Managing urban parks and high-use recreation settings, General Technical Report NC-163 (pp. 75-81). St. Paul, MN: USDA Forest Service Northcentral Forest Experiment Station.

Goeldner, C. R., Ritchie, B. J., & McIntosh, R. W. (2000). Tourism principles, practices, philosophies. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Goodrich, J. N. (1985). Black tourists: Some research findings. Journal of Travel Research, 24, 27-28.

Gottlieb, A. (1982). Americans' vacations. Annals of Tourism Research, 9, 165-187.

Gramann, J. & Allison, M. (1999). Ethnicity, race, and leisure. In E. Jackson & T. Burton (Ed.), Leisure Studies: Prospects for the twenty-first century (pp. 283-297). State College, Pennsylvania: Venture Publishing, Inc.

Graburn, N. (1983). The anthropology of tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 10, 9-33.

Green, N. (1995). Development of the perceptions of racism scale. Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 27 (2), 141-152.

Green, E., Hebron, S., & Woodard, D. (1988). A study of Sheffield women's leisure experiences. London, UK: Sports Council.

Hall, M. (1994). Gender and economic interests in tourism prostitution: the nature, development and implications of sex tourism in South-east Asia. In B. Kinnaird & D. Hall, (Eds.). Tourism: a gender analysis (pp. 121-141). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Henderson, K. (1994). Perspectives on analyzing gender, women, and leisure. Journal of Leisure Research, 26, 119-137.

Henderson, K. (1996). One size doesn't fit all: The meaning of women's leisure. Journal of Leisure Research, 28, 139-154.

Henderson, K. (1998). Researching diverse populations. Journal of Leisure Research, 30 (1), 157-171.

Hennessy, S. (1994). Female employment in tourism development in South-west England. In B. Kinnaird & D. Hall, (Eds.). Tourism: a gender analysis (pp. 121-141). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Horna, J. (1989). Married life and leisure: A multidimensional study of couples. World Leisure and Recreation, 35, 17-21.

Hsu, C. & Sung, S. (1997). Travel behaviors of international students at a midwestern university. Journal of Travel Research, 36 (1), 59-63.

Hutchison, R. (1987). Ethnicity and urban recreation: Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics in Chicago's public parks. Journal of Leisure Research, 19 (3), 205-222.

Hutchison, R. (1988). A critique of race, ethnicity, and social class in recent leisure-recreation research. Journal of Leisure Research, 20 (1), 10-30.

International Union of Official Travel Organization (IUOTO). (1963). The United Nations Conference on International Travel and Tourism. Madrid: World Tourism Organization.

Jaynes, G. D. & Williams, R. (1989). A common destiny: Blacks and American society. Washington, D.C. National Academy Press.

Johnson, C. Y., Bowker, J. M., English, D. B. K., & Worthen, D. (1997). Theoretical perspectives of ethnicity and outdoor recreation: A review and synthesis of African-American participation (General Technical Report SRS-11). Asheville, NC: USDA Forest Service, Southern Research Station.

Kay, T. (1996). Women's work and women's worth: The leisure implications of women's changing employment patterns. Leisure Studies, 15, 49-64.

Kelly, J. (1975). Lifestyles and leisure choices. Family Coordinator, 24, 185-190.

Kelly, J. (1996). Leisure. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Kelly, J. R. & Freysinger, V. (2000). 21st century leisure: Current issues. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Kelly, J. R. & Godbey, G. (1992). The sociology of leisure. State College, PA: Venture Publishing, Inc.

Kinnaird, V., Kothari, U., & Hall, D. (1994). Tourism: gender perspectives. In B. Kinnaird & D. Hall, (Eds.). Tourism: a gender analysis (pp. 1-34). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Klobus-Edwards, P. (1981). Race, residence, and leisure style: Some policy implications. Leisure Sciences, 4 (2), 95-111.

Kluegel, J. R., & Bobo, L. (1993). Opposition to race-targeting. American Sociological Review, 58, 443-464.

Krieger, N. (1990). Racial and gender discrimination: Risk factors for high blood pressure. Social Science and Medicine, 30, 1273-1281.

Krysan, M., Schuman, H., Scott, L., & Beatty, P. (1994). Response rates and response content in mail versus face-to-face surveys. Public Opinion Quarterly, 58, (3), 381-399.

Landrine, H., & Klonoff, E. A. (1996). The schedule of racist events: A measure of racial discrimination and a study of its negative physical and mental consequences. Journal of Black Psychology, 22, 144-168.

Lawson, R. (1991). Patterns of tourist expenditures and types of vacation across the family life cycle. Journal of Travel Research, 29 (4), 12-18.

Lee, J. (2000). The salience of race in everyday life. Work and Occupations, 27 (3), 353-377.

Lee, R. G. (1972). The social definition of outdoor recreation places. In W. Burch, N. Cheek, & L. Taylor (Eds.), Social Behavior, Natural Resources, and the Environment (pp.68-84). New York: Harper Row.

Leontidou, L. (1994). Gender dimension of tourism in Greece: employment, sub-cultures and restructuring. In B. Kinnaird & D. Hall, (Eds.). Tourism: a gender analysis (pp. 121-141). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Levinson, D. (1996). The seasons of a woman's life. New York: Knopf.

Levinson, D., Darrow, C., Klein, E., Levinson, M., & McKee, B. (1978). The seasons of a man's life. New York: Knopf.

MacCannell, D. (1976). The tourist: A theory of the leisure class. New York: Schocken.

Marshment, M. (1997). Gender takes a holiday: representation in holiday brochures. In M. Sinclair, (Ed.). Gender, work and tourism (pp.16-34). London: Routledge.

McAvoy, L., Winter, P., Outley, C., McDonald, D., & Chavez, D. (2000). Conducting research with communities of color. Society & Natural Resources, 13, (5), 479-489.

Opperman, M. (1999). Sex tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 26, 251-266.

Osgood, D. & Lee, H. (1993). Leisure activities, age, and adult roles across the life span. Loisir-et-Societe, 16, 181-208.

Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC). (1962). National recreation survey. ORRRC Study Report 19. Berkeley: University of California, Wildland Research Center.

Pearce, D. (1987). Tourism today: A geographical analysis. New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Pettigrew, T. (1985). Racial discrimination in the United States. New York: Harper and Row.

Philipp, S. F. (1993). Racial differences in the perceived attractiveness of tourism destinations. Journal of Leisure Research, 25 (3), 290-305.

Philipp, S. F. (1994). Race and tourism choice: A legacy of discrimination? Annals of Tourism Research, 21 (3), 479-488.

Philipp, S. F. (1999). Are we welcome? African American racial acceptance in leisure activities and the importance given to children's leisure. Journal of Leisure Research, 31 (4), 385-403.

Rapoport, R. & Rapoport, R. N. (1975). Leisure and the family life cycle. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Richter, L. (1994). Exploring the political role of gender in tourism research. Global Tourism: The Next Decade, 1, 146-157.

Schuman, H., Steeh, C. & Bobo, L. (1985). Racial attitudes in America: Trends and interpretations. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Shaw, S. (1985). Gender and leisure: Inequality in the distribution of leisure time. Journal of Leisure Research, 17, 266-282.

Shinew, K. J., Floyd, M. F., McGuire, F. A., & Noe, F. P. (1995). Gender, race, and subjective social class and their association with leisure preferences. Leisure Sciences, 17, 75-89.

Shinew, K. J., Floyd, M. F., McGuire, F. A., & Noe, F. P. (1996). Class polarization and leisure activity preferences of African Americans: Intragroup comparisons. Journal of Leisure Research, 28 (4), 219-232.

Sigelman, L., & Welch, S. (1991). Black Americans' views of racial inequality: The dream deferred. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Smith, V. (1989). Hosts and guests: The anthropology of tourism. (2nd edition). Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Squire, S. (1994). Gender and tourist experiences: Assessing women's shared meanings for Beatrix Potter. Leisure Studies, 13, 195-209.

Stamps, S. M., & Stamps, M. B. (1985). Race, class and leisure activities of urban residents. Journal of Leisure Research, 17 (1), 40-56.

Stanfield, J. H. & Dennis, R. M. (1993). Race and ethnicity in research methods. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sudman, S. (1994). Personal communication. Champaign, IL: University of Illinois.

Thurot, J. M. & Thurot, G. (1983). The ideology of class and tourism: confronting the discourse of advertising. Annals of Tourism Research, 10, 173-189.

Travel Industry Association of America (TIA). (1996). The minority traveler.

Travel Industry Association of America (TIA). 01 May 2001. Travel statistics and trends. <www.tia.org.com>.

U.S. Bureau of the Census (USBC). (1999). Current population reports. P60-190. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Wallace, V. K. & Witter, D. J. (1992). Urban nature centers: What do our constituents want and how can we give it to them? Legacy, 2 (2), 20-24.

Washburne, R. F. (1978). Black under-participation in wildland recreation: Alternative explanations. Leisure Sciences, 1 (2), 175-189.

Washburne, R. F. & Wall, P. (1980). Black-white ethnic differences in outdoor recreation. (Research Paper INT-249). Ogden, UT: U.S. Department of Agriculture, USDA Forest Service, Intermountain Forest and Range Experiment Station.

Wearing, B. (1993). The family that plays together stays together: Or does it? Leisure and mothers. World Leisure and Recreation, 35, 25-29.

Weber, M. (1978). Economy and society. In G. Roth & C. Wittich (Eds): Economy and society. Berkeley: University of California, Press.

West, P. C. (1989). Urban region parks and Black minorities: Subculture, marginality, and interracial relations in park use in the Detroit metropolitan area. Leisure Sciences, 11, 11-28.

West, P. C. (1993). The tyranny of metaphor: Interracial relations, minority recreation, and the wild-land-urban interface. In A. W. Ewert, D. J. Chavez, & A. W. Magill (Eds.), Culture, conflict, and communication in the wildland-urban interface (pp.109-115). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Wicks, B. & Norman, K. (1996). Improving African American survey response rates for leisure marketing and planning studies. Journal of Parks and Recreation Administration, 14, (2), 1-15.

Wimbush, E., & Talbot, M. (1988). Relative freedoms: Women and leisure. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Witt, P., & Goodale, T. (1981). The relationship between barriers to leisure enjoyment and family stages. Leisure Sciences, 4, 29-49.

Woodard, M. D. (1988). Class, regionality, and leisure among urban Black Americans: The post-civil rights era. Journal of Leisure Research, 20 (2), 87-105.

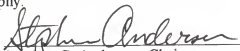
World Tourism Organization (WTO). (1997). Yearbook of tourism statistics. Madrid: WTO.

Yiannakis, A. & Gibson, H. (1992). Roles tourists play. Annals of Tourism Research, 19, 287-303.

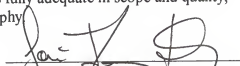
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Cynthia Lorraine Willming was born in Tucson, Arizona, on September 13, 1971. In 1993 she received a Bachelor of Science in Recreation, followed in 1994 by a Master of Science in Recreational Studies, both from the University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida. After graduation, she worked as a Program Manager for the Department of Army's Child and Youth Services Division in Kaiserslautern, Germany. While working overseas, she traveled to various European countries, which complemented her existing appreciation of diverse cultures. Returning to the United States two years later, she was a Director for the YMCA in Orlando, Florida. In 1997, she again attended the University of Florida to pursue a Doctor of Philosophy degree in health and human performance with a specialization in tourism. Following graduation, she will continue her research interests in travel and tourism as a faculty member at California State University at Chico.

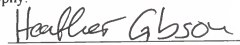
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Stephen C. Anderson, Chair
Professor of Recreation, Parks and
Tourism


I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Lori A. Pennington-Gray
Assistant Professor of Recreation,
Parks and Tourism

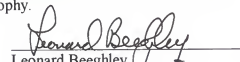
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Heather J. Gibson
Assistant Professor of Recreation,
Parks and Tourism

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

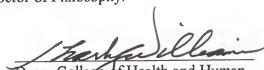

Stephen M. Holland
Associate Professor of Recreation,
Parks and Tourism

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Leonard Beeghly
Professor of Sociology

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Health and Human Performance and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

August 2001


Dean, College of Health and Human
Performance

Dean, Graduate School